

# The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

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Number 4.

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## By What Standards Shall We Judge the Value of Civic Education?

BY ARTHUR WILLIAM DUNN.

While we are discussing ways and means of making the teaching of civics more effective, is it timely to consider by what standards we are to judge what is effective and what is not? If I examine your proposed course in civics, on what grounds shall I say that it is good or bad? If I visit your class and pronounce your teaching excellent or poor, by what standards do I estimate the value of your work? Why should you accept my judgment? If we are to pass judgment, and our judgment is to be accepted, we must have standards. The question is, can such standards be formulated so that we may have a common basis for comparison, and, what is more important, so that any teacher may put her work to the test from day to day, or from week to week, and see, not whether it conforms to the opinions of some one, but whether it measures up to clearly recognized criteria?

In order to arrive at standards by which to measure the efficiency of a device or a method, we must first understand what the device or method is intended to accomplish. Instruction in civics is intended to contribute to organized training for citizenship. It does not constitute the whole of that training; for the entire work of the school, as well as of other agencies, also contributes to this end. So far as this is true, some of our standards, at least, should apply to the other phases of school work and to that of other agencies, as well as to the teaching of civics. Dr. McMurtry has formulated certain such standards that he has applied to teaching in general.

But the teaching of civics is particularly intended to train for citizenship. Our standards must, therefore, have direct reference to the effectiveness with which it accomplishes this purpose. Some will say at once that it is impossible to measure the effectiveness with which this result is accomplished, because the result will be manifest only in the future. Of course, the influence of teaching follows the pupil through life, and it is not possible to tell just what fruit will be borne ten or twenty years hence. Even if one should analyze the pupil's life at the end of that time, it would be impossible to determine what traits and tendencies were the result of any particular method of teaching received in youth, and what were the result of other influences.

There are those, also, who say that we cannot measure the results of teaching with a yard stick or a bushel measure! Neither can we so measure elec-

tricity or light. Nor for that matter, do we measure potatoes with a yard stick, nor cloth by the bushel! The standard has to be appropriate to the commodity or force. To scornfully assert, therefore, that we cannot measure the value of our methods of civic teaching with a yard stick is no contribution to the argument.

Those who say that the results of civic teaching cannot be seen or measured until later years fall into one of the errors that have persistently hindered the progress of civic education. This is the error of assuming that the child will be a citizen only at some future time; of forgetting that he is a citizen now, with real civic relations and interests. The process of civic education is a process of cultivating existing tendencies and traits and interests. The gardener who cultivates a plant, will, it is true, not know until the fulness of time how much fruit it will bear—what results he will get from his labors. In the fulness of time he may measure his results by the bushel. But, nevertheless, as he cultivates the plant day by day, he appraises its growth by standards clearly recognized by all gardeners. *And he varies his treatment according to the signs.*

Not only may the growth of the plant be measured, and its probable worth determined, but the methods of the gardener may themselves be appraised. An expert gardener, watching the operations of another, can judge from those operations what is wrong with the plant, or what is expected of it. In other words, there are certain standards, accepted by all skillful gardeners, by which they appraise the methods of themselves and others, and the value of their product even while in the process of growth.

In the teaching of civics we are dealing with young citizens. They are not only citizens of a home community and a school community (though their civic relations to these simple communities are very real), but they are citizens of a neighborhood, of a city or village, of a state and of a nation. They have, in simple form, the same civic interests that motive all community action and that are the foundation of all community arrangements and institutions, including government. Every child has an interest of some kind in his physical well-being, in his own personal safety and that of his home and family possessions, in his father's occupation or business (perhaps even in small business enterprises of his own), in the matter of his education, in the appearance of

his neighborhood, and in social activities (at least in play). These are the very things for which government exists. What civic education has to do is to bring these real civic interests of the child into the foreground of consciousness and relate them to the interests and activities of the community as a whole, and of government, which is the community's means of co-operation.

The process of civic education is, from the standpoint of the child, a process of growth, and, from the standpoint of the teacher, a process of cultivation, as the gardener cultivates the plant. It is a cultivation of civic qualities which have already "sprouted," as it were, and which will continue to grow under the eyes of the teacher. If this be true, is it not possible to measure, in some manner, the development of these qualities, and to arrive at standards by which to test the effectiveness of methods of cultivation in the light of results achieved by them? If this can be done, it will be of incalculable value as a means of perfecting the course of study and the process of teaching. The first step is to define the civic qualities whose resultant we recognize as good citizenship, and whose cultivation should be the aim of civics teaching.

First in importance is *interest* in one's civic relations. Apathy is one of our greatest civic sins. Bad citizenship is more often due to lack of interest than to lack of knowledge. No one can be a good citizen without an interest in civic matters. It follows that it should be an important part of civic education to cultivate an abiding civic interest. It is unnecessary to say that this means much more than to "make the subject interesting," in the superficial sense of that phrase. (There is in existence a text-book on civil government which attempts to "make the subject interesting" by the injection of humorous remarks!) The only way to cultivate an abiding interest in the civic relations is to demonstrate that they ARE of vital moment to the individual. The present interest of the child must be kept in mind and not his probable or possible interest of ten years hence. One standard that might be suggested, then, is that, other things being equal, *civics teaching is good in proportion as it makes its appeal definitely and constantly to the pupil's own present interest as a citizen.*

Interest is closely allied to *motive*. But real or apparent interest may lead to the setting up of wrong motives. A group of boys who were studying their own community from the standpoint of cleanliness and beauty, were "interested" by the offer of a prize to the boy who should bring in the largest number of discarded tin cans. The motive set up was wrong, and uncivic action resulted. Intense rivalry supplanted community co-operation, selfish personal interest took the place of the common interest of the community, and some of the boys actually hauled into the city wagon-loads of cans from the city's dumps! Good citizenship can only grow out of right motives. It follows that it should be a part of civic education to cultivate right motives. Pupils should be led both to *want to know more* about their

civic relations, and to *want to do something* as good citizens. Therefore, we might suggest as a second standard that, other things being equal, *civics teaching is good in proportion as it provides the pupil with adequate motives for studying civics, and for seeking opportunity to participate in the civic life of the community of which he is a member.*

Community of interests implies community of effort to provide for those interests. The proper conception of government is that of a means of co-operation for the common well-being. No man can, in these days, be effective in civic life unless his "team work" is good. The possession of a spirit and habit of *co-operation* is an essential qualification for good citizenship. It therefore becomes a part of civic education to cultivate this co-operative spirit and habit, and it may be suggested as a third standard that, other things being equal, *civics teaching is good in proportion as it stimulates co-operation among the pupils, and on the part of the pupils with others, for the common interest of the community.*

Two other qualifications for good citizenship, out of several that might be mentioned, are good judgment and initiative. The thoroughly efficient citizen will show good judgment when confronted with a civic situation, or with a choice of civic methods; and he will display initiative in applying the method to the situation. Given an interest in civic affairs, a right motive, and a willingness to pull with others, a man's citizenship will not count for a great deal unless he is able to sift out the essentials from the non-essentials of a given situation; and to decide wisely as to the best method of dealing with it; and unless he has the power to initiate action. It would seem, then, that civic education ought to include the cultivation of civic judgment and civic initiative. If that is true, two other standards might be stated thus: Other things being equal, *civics teaching is good in proportion as it cultivates the judgment with reference to a civic situation and the methods of dealing with it; and in proportion as it cultivates initiative in the face of such situation.*

The only test that we have been in the habit of applying to our civics teaching in the past has been the purely informational test. We have contented ourselves with asking, How much do the children know?

A certain fund of *information* is essential to good citizenship; but mere knowledge about government will not of itself make a good citizen. Ignorance of government is more often a result than a cause of civic inefficiency. Given an interest, an impelling motive, and a little initiative, and a citizen's knowledge may be left to care for itself. It is true, on the other hand, that a little information of the *right kind* may stimulate interest and provide a motive. At all events, it is a part of civic education to give a serviceable fund of information relating to civic life. The problem which confronts the teacher is, How much and what kind of information should be acquired by the pupil? This is also the problem which the maker of the course of study has to face.



No hard and fast rule can be given for determining just what information should be given under all circumstances; but I believe it is safe to say that information is valuable from an educational standpoint in proportion as it may be, and is, related to the experience and interest of the child. Let us, then, state our sixth standard as follows: *Civics teaching is good in proportion as it selects and organizes subject-matter with reference to its relation to the experience and interest of the pupil.*

Before giving concrete illustration of the application of these standards, let us summarize them. The proposition is that we shall make greater progress toward effective civic education if we continually ask ourselves the following questions:

1. Does our civics teaching appeal to the pupil's present and actual interest as a citizen?
2. Does our civics teaching afford the pupil an adequate motive (a) for his study of the subject, (b) to participate in civic activities?
3. Does our civics teaching stimulate the pupil to co-operative activity in the interest of his community (i.e., class, school, family, neighborhood, city, state or nation)?
4. Does our civics teaching cultivate the pupil's judgment relative to civic situations and methods of dealing with them?
5. Does our civics teaching cultivate in the pupil civic initiative?
6. Does our civics teaching select and organize subject-matter with reference to its relation to the civic experience and interest of the pupil?

Let us take two class exercises on the subject of the health-protective work of a community.

In the first exercise selected, we will suppose that a lesson has been assigned by the teacher, covering certain pages of a text-book dealing with the organization and work of a health department. On the day following the assignment, questions of the following type are asked and answered:

What are the administrative departments of a city government?

Which of these are we to study to-day?

Who are at the head of the department of health?

How many members are there in a board of health?

How are they appointed? How long do they serve?

What are their duties?

What other officers are employed by the health department?

How are they appointed? What are their duties, etc., etc.?

Without pretending that these particular questions and their answers constitute the entire lesson, they represent a type of exercise with which we are all familiar. The method employed is the typical "recitational" method—question and answer. The pupil is graded in accordance with the accuracy with which he recites the information conveyed by the text-book. It may be an extreme type from which we are getting away, but just such recitations with variations can be found in abundance at the present time, and in any State in the Union. It does not

measure up to a single one of the standards suggested. Without further comment on this exercise, let us contrast it with the following:

Without text-book assignment, the children discuss informally what good health means to each one, and give examples from their own experience of consequences of sickness; they discuss particular dangers to their own health, such as impure food, impure air, lack of exercise; they explain how they individually care for their own health, or how at times they are careless of it; they point out the increased dangers to health where many people are gathered together, and give examples of the dependence of each on others for health protection, as in the case of epidemics; they derive from this the need for co-operation in the interest of health; they illustrate such co-operation in the home and in the school, and indicate rules that necessarily exist in home and school for health protection; they give examples of neighborhood co-operation for health protection, such as combined efforts for clean yards, alleys and streets; they report on actual dangers to health with which they are confronted in their own city, and make the logical deductions regarding the necessity of co-operation on the part of the entire city to avoid these dangers. This raises the question as to whether the city does so co-operate, and leads to a thorough discussion of how the city government provides the means for such co-operation. They enter into detail in regard to how the department of health insures pure water for the use of each of their families; provides for the removal of garbage from their back doors, and prevents the spread of contagious diseases. This brings into view the various inspectors and health officers, and leads to further comment on their activities and a consideration of how they are supervised by a board of health, and of the relation of the latter to the people. In a discussion of the various duties of the board of health, one boy asserts that "it passes pure food laws." Another at once objects, "No, the national government makes the pure food laws." At once the horizon is broadened, the question why the national government acts in this particular case is discussed, and the relation of the great packing houses to the common health interests of the entire nation is disclosed. Other activities of the national government for health protection are referred to, and also the sphere of the state government in the same relation to the individual.

1. In appraising this exercise, the first comment to be made is that fully as much information was acquired about the machinery of the department of health as in the first exercise cited; but it was organized with reference to its relation to the child's experience. Indeed, the pupil was left with a clearer picture of the government machinery because he saw it in perspective.

2. The whole exercise was built up on the basis of the pupil's present actual interest in physical well-being. Further, the child's interest was maintained by the method of conducting the exercise. He was dealing, all the time, with real things, and not pri-

marily with a text-book. He gathered his information largely from direct observation, from the give-and-take of class discussion, from inquiries at home and of friends, some of whom may have been connected with the health department, from printed reports, from newspapers, merely supplementing where necessary from text-books. He was *doing something* all the time.

3. The pupil found ample motive for studying the health problem; if for no other reason, because the method of class work was interesting to him. But he also saw the value of it in his own experience. Furthermore, he soon wanted to do something, in co-operation with others, to make his home and school and neighborhood safer from disease.

4. The spirit of co-operation prevailed throughout the entire exercise, both in content and in method. Habits of co-operation were cultivated by group work in acquiring information.

5. Judgment was cultivated by comparison of methods of dealing with health and sanitation problems.

6. Initiative was at least stimulated by the method of conducting the exercise. The teacher herself was largely in the background. Pupils asked more questions than she. They were encouraged to make their own suggestions as to where to seek information, or what to do in a given situation.

Incidentally this exercise illustrates another point that is worth emphasizing.

The term "community civics" is used in the topic assigned for this morning. This term is becoming pretty well established to designate that type of civics whose aim is to help the child "to know his own community"—what it means, what it does for him, and how it does it, what it has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfill his obligation—training him to be an efficient member of his community.

There exists, however, some confusion of ideas about the real significance of "community civics." It is confused with the mere study of one's own town, with mere *local* civics. We hear talk of "community civics" in one grade and "national civics" or "advanced civics" in another grade. What needs emphasis is the idea that the significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests, of community co-operation through government. One may study his own town without a touch of the spirit of "community civics," while that spirit may be made thoroughly to infuse the study of our nation or state.

The exercise just produced in outline illustrates the true conception of "community civics." The real subject before the class was that of community co-operation through government for the protection of health. While for the purposes of health protection the child sees himself usually as a member of a local community, at times he finds that his health interests are common to the entire nation, as in the

matter of pure food supply, and he sees himself as a member of a national community whose means of co-operation is the federal government.

Parenthetically, it may be suggested that possibly we may find in this thought a disposition of the time-worn question, Which shall be taught first, the national or the local? In the exercise given, local, state and national were all discussed in their relations to each other, and to the life of the child, in the performance of a single function, the protection of the child's health.

One more illustration will be given to emphasize more definitely certain aspects of the use of standards for testing the effectiveness of civics teaching.

One morning, after a heavy fall of snow, the question was raised in a number of civics classes, "What will be the effects of this snowfall upon the life of the community?" It was soon developed that it interfered with traffic; that if it was allowed to melt and freeze it would become dangerous to life and limb; and that when it lay in dirty heaps it marred the beauty of the city. The snowfall was thus seen in various community relations that had been previously discussed in other aspects. Who cleaned the snow from the roadways? This was done for the citizens by the street-cleaning department of the city government. Who cleaned the sidewalks? This was not done by the city government, but was left in the hands of the individual householders. The children observed on their way home how many of the walks were cleaned, and reported on the number not cleaned. Were the citizens left to their own discretion in this matter? No, for a city ordinance commanded them to clean their walks. Why was it not obeyed? Why was it not enforced? What is the effect of having a law that is not regarded?

The children took the matter to heart. They talked about it at home. They wanted to do something about it. The question arose as to what they could do. Here is where the training of judgment came in. Some wanted to complain to the authorities. It was decided after discussion that mere complaint seldom accomplishes much. Some thought that they could speak personally to offenders. This was decided to be slightly officious and perhaps offensive to older citizens. It was suggested that groups of boys organize to go about their neighborhoods cleaning walks. This might be done as a commercial venture; and in a few cases such groups cleaned walks before vacant lots as a public service. But it was concluded that for boys to go about cleaning other people's walks as a public service, when these people could and should do it themselves, was shifting the burden of responsibility in a harmful way. What actually happened was that the boys pretty generally saw to it that their own walks were cleaned, learning the important lesson that the best civic service is usually performed in the regular course of one's daily tasks; and further, a public sentiment on the subject was created, starting in the class rooms, but extending into the homes, and being

spread by civic organizations and the newspapers, until the householders themselves saw to it, after later storms, that their walks were cleaned.

This incident, which occurred practically as given in the regular course of eighth-grade civics instruction, besides emphasizing the cultivation of interest, the organization of subject matter with reference to its relation to the child's experience, and the cultivation of motive, is a particularly good example of the training of judgment in the face of a civic situation, and of the development of initiative and co-operation. It resulted in *action*, which is the end of all good citizenship and of all good teaching.

Participation by children in real civic activities is a valuable means of civic training; but its employment requires the best judgment on the part of those who direct it. The incident of the boys who brought tin cans from the city's dumps into the city in order to win a prize illustrates misdirected activity. The other day I read of a child who was so impressed by the danger of expectoration that she reprimanded and exhorted offenders whom she encountered on the street. The story was told to illustrate the effectiveness of the civic instruction the child had received. But, in my opinion, it was a dangerous kind of procedure, exposing the child to possible abuse, and cultivating officiousness altogether out of place in a young citizen. I learned the other day of an arrangement whereby boys were authorized to do police duty in a certain neighborhood. Meanwhile the policeman on the beat was shirking the work for

which the community employed him. While children are citizens, they are not adults. A child that is learning to walk must walk in order to learn; but he should not be expected to walk far, nor to carry heavy burdens. Experiments in children's participation in civic matters that thrust children unduly into the public view, or that impose upon them responsibilities that properly belong elsewhere, are questionable. We sometimes lose sight of the child's welfare in our adult interest in civic reform. The business of the school is to educate the child and not to exploit him for a reformation of the community that the proper agencies have failed to bring about.

On the other hand, the snow-cleaning incident referred to affords an illustration of wisely guided participation by children in a civic situation affecting the entire community.

In conclusion, let me say, first, that it is not pretended that the standards that have been suggested here are the only ones, nor the final ones to be adopted; it is to be hoped that better ones can be evolved; and, second, that it is not to be supposed that every half-hour class exercise will measure up to all of them. No citizen is likely to exercise all the qualities of good citizenship in one day. It is not to be expected that all these qualities can be trained in every recitation. What is suggested is that these or other standards be kept in view by every teacher of civics as guides that will determine, with something like precision, the *direction* which he shall take.<sup>1</sup>

## The Municipal System of the Roman State

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM L. WESTERMANN, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

In the summer of 214 B. C., not long after he had concluded his offensive alliance with Hannibal against Rome, Philip V, of Macedon, wrote a letter to the people of Larisa in Thessaly in which he showed a thorough understanding of one characteristic and fundamental feature of the policy of the Roman republic. In response to a previous letter of Philip, the people of Larisa had passed a decree conferring citizen rights upon a considerable number of unfranchised residents of their city. Later a reaction had come against this policy, and the names of the new citizens had been cut off the citizen lists. Philip then sent a letter of protest to the magistrates and people of Larisa, a copy of which was found some thirty years ago inscribed on stone (Dittenberger, "Sylloge Inscriptionum Graecarum," 2d edition, No. 239). Philip argued that it was good policy for a state to have many citizens. "It is possible, also, to observe other peoples who follow a similar policy of citizen enrollments. Among these the Romans are especially prominent. They even receive their slaves, when they have freed them, into

the state and give them a share in the magistracies; and in this manner they have not only increased their own native city, but have also sent out colonies into nearly seventy places."

The statement is surprising, because it comes at a time of the lowest ebb of Rome's fortunes in the Hannibalic War, and seems, nevertheless, to indicate a marked respect for the Roman system. It need not astonish us, however, that so astute a political leader as Philip had gained an insight into the most essential cause of the strength of Rome's hegemony over Italy. This lay undoubtedly in the elasticity and expansive power of its citizenship. Not only was Rome able to send out colonies from the city and its subject territories, as Philip states to the people of Larisa. It had also developed, long before Philip's day, the power to spread and include within itself peregrine, or alien, communities—to change alien communities into integral parts of the state. This was accomplished by the granting of complete or restricted rights of Roman citizenship to those towns of Italy which, peacefully or by conquest, came to adhere to the Roman state, at the same time leaving to these towns the conduct of their local affairs. This was the famous municipal system of

<sup>1</sup> Reprinted from the Civic Education Series of the Bureau of Education.



the Roman republic which continued deep into the time of the empire, and was throughout the entire period a vital branch of the Roman administrative policy. The advantages of this process of incorporation in spreading the power of Rome and consolidating her strength must have been quite as apparent to Philip as the easy attainment of citizenship in Rome itself. He does not mention it in his letter to the people of Larisa because it is not applicable to the case in point.

#### THE ROMANIZING OF ITALY THROUGH THE COLONIES AND MUNICIPALITIES

The period of the rapid extension of Rome's leadership in Italy lies between the middle of the fourth century and the beginning of the first Punic War in 264 B. C. As the territorial expansion carried Rome's power further and further away from the actual city, the important question arose of the relation which was to exist between these territories and their new leader. The solution given to this problem involved a new principle in ancient theories of state building. This was the great colonial and municipal system of Rome which gave her the possibility of developing a real state beyond any political scheme evolved by the Greeks, either in their political theory or practice. The first application of this principle upon a large scale was at the readjustment of the relations of Rome with the members of the Latin League after the suppression of the revolt of the members of the League in 338 B. C.

The new idea involved is the granting of a part of or the complete rights of Roman citizenship to single towns or cities. In the history of Italy from the Latin revolt of 340-338 B. C. to the death of Julius Cæsar, the grant of partial rights of citizenship proved to be, in general, a probationary stage toward the attainment of complete Roman citizenship. We cannot know whether it was originally intended as merely a temporary condition by the unknown Roman statesmen who first put the scheme into operation. They may, at the outset, have considered the scheme of granting partial citizen rights a durable one. But the march of events carried the municipalities of Italy from the possession of lesser citizen rights through more extended rights toward complete citizenship until Julius Cæsar granted full citizen rights to the municipalities of Cisalpine Gaul. This made of entire Italy a unified state on the basis of complete Roman citizenship.

Even at the outset, in 338 B. C., when the disposition of the revolted cities of the Latin League was made, Rome granted complete rights of Roman citizenship to some of the Latin communities situated nearest to Rome. The citizens of these towns, therefore, had the right to go to Rome and vote at the meetings of assemblies and take advantage of all the privileges of citizenship, as they also shouldered the burdens of the citizen obligations.

It is well to define clearly what the problem was which faced the worthy and cool-headed *patres* in the Roman Senate during the period of the expansion in Italy, and the nature of their answer to the prob-

lem. Their idea was not that of the modern democratic and nationalistic state, which attempts to attain national unity and strength, and establish general citizen freedom, using home rule as a means to this end. The intention of those who guided Rome's political course in this period was rather this—to establish a system, as economical as possible, by which the allies and subjects of Rome might be used most advantageously in furthering the interests of the city-state of Rome.<sup>1</sup> It was purely a problem of administration and organization. The great contribution of these worthies of the Roman Senate to the political practice of the Greek imperialistic states does not lie in the fact that they left to the subjected territories a measure of local independence or home rule. For the Romans did not always see fit to grant local independence to the Italian communities. Furthermore, the grant of local independence was a characteristic of the Athenian city-state in its imperialism of the fifth century in the development of the Delian League. The new feature lies in the assumption, on the part of the newly acquired subjects, sometimes none too willingly, of a share in the political rights of the central or conquering city-state.

Any treatment of the Roman municipal system, since its essential feature was the administration of newly acquired territory and peoples, must include a consideration of the colonies sent out by Rome and the allies united to Rome by treaties which precluded them from being *municipia* in the strict Roman definition of that word. These two types which came under the expanding aegis of Rome, tended to merge and disappear in the municipal system. We shall, therefore, use the term "municipal system" in the broader sense which it acquired in the time of Cicero as inclusive of all the varied forms under which the citizenship of Rome spread over the Mediterranean world.

In consolidating her power, as her territories widened, Rome early adopted the fundamental theory that it was advantageous to admit some of the new peoples to participation in the citizen privileges and burdens of Rome. This was done, where it was considered practicable, by granting them *municipium*. Abstractly this political term meant *partial citizenship*. As used concretely by the Romans it signified the *community* which obtained this partial citizenship. The process was one of incorporation into the Roman state. If it was decided that local autonomy, or home rule, would be left with the city thus incorporated, this was done. Other communities, especially those which had desperately resisted Rome's advance, were sometimes deprived of their local government. That is, they lost their old senate and assembly and with them their right to elect their local magistrates and to pass laws by which to govern themselves.

To these latter communities magistrates called pre-

<sup>1</sup> See Gelzer's review of Reid, "Municipalities of the Roman Empire," in "Wochenschrift für klassische Philologie," Vol. 31, p. 487.



fects were sent out from Rome, and this type of community was designated as a *praefectura*. So far as Roman citizenship was concerned they were in no sense badly treated. Their citizens were Roman citizens with partial rights, or the "passive franchise." They had the right of intermarriage with Roman citizens, free commercial relations with Rome, and the right of appeal from the decision of Roman magistrates in cases of capital punishment to the citizen body of Rome. They lacked the right to vote in the Roman assemblies at elections or upon legislative proposals, and the right to stand for election for the Roman magistracies. Their chief citizen obligation was that of military service. Their levies for the Roman armies were organized and fitted out in their home towns. They served in the legions, as did full Roman citizens, under Roman tribunes. It was their old native citizenship which they lost, and the loss was long and keenly felt.

The relation of the allies with the conquering city was generally considered to be much more favorable. A separate treaty with each allied community fixed definitely their obligations and the measure of their independence. The allies did not have Roman citizenship thrust upon them. Their status differed, therefore, fundamentally from that of the *municipia* in the fact that they were not Roman citizens in any degree. So long as they remained allies they were aliens. Of the various types of allied communities which were possible under the system of separate treaties, the general features were these: The allied communities retained sovereignty, or entire autonomy, which included the right to mint their own coins and to retain their own local administration and legal system free from interference by Roman magistrates. Their relations as allies demanded of them that they furnish contingents of troops in the wars waged by Rome, the head of all the allied states. But these troops were not incorporated in the Roman legions under the command of the Roman tribunes. They were organized as auxiliaries in independent formations, subject, however, to the supreme command of the Roman consuls in the field. In this respect their relation was somewhat like that of the Bavarian army in the present German federation of states. The Bavarian contingent is an independent organization under the King of Bavaria. But in time of war the Bavarian citizen soldiery, including the King, comes under the supreme command of William II in his position as Emperor of the German federation.

Such was the relation established by Rome with the Samnites after their stubborn resistance was broken in 290 B. C. As in the case of the *municipia*, the process by which the allies were taken into the state was one of *incorporation* of communities once fully independent within the sphere of Roman authority. In the case of the colonies, however, the process was centrifugal, a case of expulsion from the center of citizenship outward. Of the colonies there were two types, colonies of Roman citizens sent out with full Roman rights, and Latin colonies. The latter class usually included both Roman citizens and Latin allies. The Roman citizens of full rights who

became members of the Latin colonies lost their position as *cives Romani*. In return for this loss they gained entire independence of Rome in their local affairs, and freedom from the land tax. Altogether their position was distinctly favorable.

The establishment of Roman and Latin colonies in the time of the Republic may be divided into two periods according to the motives which actuated the state in sending them out. The first period comprises the early colonization in Italy down to the founding of the colony of Auximum in the Picentine territory in 157 B. C. The purpose followed was one of Roman occupation and military control of Italy. From 157 B. C. to the first tribunate of Gaius Gracchus in 123 B. C., colonization came to a standstill. With the immense booty which came into the state coffers during Rome's expansion into the Balkan peninsula and Asia Minor, the advantages of Roman citizenship became marked. The aristocratic families which controlled the state were moved to stop colonization through the desire to keep the control of the power within their own hands. To them the rule of the provinces offered opportunities for amassing wealth by devious methods. To the Roman knights the business opportunities of the provinces were enticing, and they were not eager to endanger their opportunities through feelings of political altruism. To the Roman plebs the conquests of the second century and the exploitation of the conquered had brought numerous privileges, among which exemption from all direct taxation was a very real one. The selfish interests of all classes, therefore, combined to put an end to the colonization movement and the extension of citizenship for the time being.

With Gaius Gracchus and his proposals of the year 123 B. C., the second period in the history of Roman colonization begins. The actual founding of several colonies in Italy and the projected colony upon the site of Carthage are a part of the social and agrarian program of Gracchus. They were founded, on the one hand, with the idea of taking care of the proletariat of the city. On the agrarian side, the intention was to break up the large estates, and re-establish the small peasant proprietor of the old days. Another feature of the colonization of this period, and one destined to last deeply into the Empire, was introduced by Marius in the *lex Apuleia* of 100 B. C. This was the dangerous custom of requiting the professional soldiers of the army, after they had completed their term of service, by grants of land in veteran colonies. The abuses which arose out of this practice during the civil wars of the first century before Christ are well known. The lands in Italy needed for distribution were too often obtained by confiscation of the property of wealthy men and by the proscription of the victims.

After the conclusion of the Hannibalic War the hegemony of Rome in Italy was securely founded. In a very few years the preponderance of the power of the single city as against the allies and the Latin colonies began to express itself in the superior privileges which were assumed for citizens with full rights, whether in the city or in the *municipia* or in the Ro-

man colonies. The old generosity in the granting of Roman citizenship gave place to the narrow policy of enhancing the value of citizenship by restricting the numbers who might enjoy its privileges. The position of the allied communities, which had been more advantageous in the third century than that of the communities with passive citizenship, gradually became more and more burdensome. Livy tells us (27, 9, 13) that in the first year of Hannibal's campaigns in Italy the allies furnished 40,000 infantry and 4,400 cavalry, as against 24,000 infantry and 1,800 cavalry in the purely Roman legions. In the triumphal gifts of the conquering generals the soldiers of the allies receive sometimes but half of the amount granted to the citizen soldiers. Furthermore, the swollen power of Rome had robbed the autonomy of the allied communities of its early value. The proposals made by the leaders of the popular party, in 125 B. C. by M. Fulvius Flaccus, in 122 B. C. by Gaius Gracchus, to admit the Italian allies to citizenship were rebuffed in the Roman Senate. The defeat of the same proposal in 91 B. C., when it was offered by Marcus Livius Drusus, and the death of Drusus, brought the bitterness of the allies to a head. In the "Social War" (War of the *Socii*, or allies) of 90-88 B. C., the Roman state of Italy was saved from disruption by granting to the allies the thing for which they were fighting. Through the *lex Julia* and the *lex Plautia Papiria* the citizens of all allied and other communities were enabled to obtain full Roman citizenship. This meant the disappearance of the allied communities, the Latin colonies, and what may have remained of the municipalities with passive citizenship. From the Cisalpine province to the toe of Italy there were only municipalities and colonies of Roman citizens, with a few prefectures. These differed from the municipalities only in the fact that their local magistrates were appointed at Rome and sent out to them. When Julius Caesar, in 49 B. C., granted Roman citizenship to the communities beyond the Po river the political unification of Italy was completed. There no longer existed in Italy any communities with Roman citizenship *sine suffragio* (without the vote) or without the right to stand for any of the offices which the Roman electors might bestow. A citizen from Placentia upon the Po river or from Rhegium upon the Sicilian straits was equally eligible to stand for the Roman magistracies in their regular order. For the citizen of the Italian municipality with political ambitions, it was practically a necessity, of course, to live in Rome. There the elections were held, and there he must take his stand with one or the other of the big party leaders who were then dominating the politics of Rome.

#### THE RESULTS OF THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEM IN ITALY

The Hannibalic War had proven that the spread of Roman citizenship through the municipal system and the establishment of colonies was a sound political policy. It had so firmly united the core of the Italian peninsula to Rome that Hannibal's invasion took on the aspect of an attack upon Italy

rather than upon the city of Rome. The diplomatic efforts of Hannibal to attract the Latin communities and Italian allies away from their obligations and sympathies with Rome must, despite occasional and important defections, be regarded as a failure. This unification of the state of Italy under Rome's leadership was the first great result of the elasticity of Roman citizenship, and the one which the Romans intended to obtain. As a method of occupation and administration, the system had proven to be pre-eminently successful. The attempt made by Gaius Gracchus and his imitators of the popular party to better the agrarian situation in Italy and to lessen the poverty in Rome by sending out citizen colonies must be regarded as a failure, so far as these intended results are concerned. The use of colonization as a means of pensioning veteran soldiers was badly abused in the first century B. C., and its general value to the state is doubtful. Veteran professional soldiers of long service do not take kindly to the mattock and the plough. Both the social colonization of Gracchus and the veteran colonization begun by Marius were valuable, however, in completing the policy of occupation in Italy begun in the previous period.

In one of their results, the earlier and later periods, despite the three divergent purposes already mentioned, cannot be separated. It was primarily through the spread of Roman citizenship, under whatever form it occurred, that the city dialect of Rome, a local variation of the Latin tongue, became the sole vehicle of literary expression in Italy, eventually killed off the remaining Italian dialects, and became the common speech of the Italian people. Seen in its broader aspects, the spread of the Roman speech is the most tangible evidence of a greater process, which is usually called the *romanizing* of the western half of the ancient world. It is through the inscriptions that we can best trace the decay of the other Italian dialects before the advance of Latin. They show that the spread of the municipalities and colonies throughout Italy is closely followed by the spread of the Latin tongue.<sup>2</sup> The Umbrian territory, for example, was conquered by Rome toward the close of the last Samnite War, or about 290 B. C., and a number of important colonies were founded there shortly after the conquest. In the second century B. C., Latin seems already to have become the dominant tongue.

The Celtic domination of the Po Valley was broken in 225-222 B. C. The colonization in this district, essentially directed from the standpoint of military occupation, was rapid. In 219 B. C., Cremona and Placentia were founded as colonies, and the Celtic tongue, which probably had never established itself completely among the natives of the district who were ruled by the Celts, began to disappear rapidly. We have less than half dozen Celtic inscriptions from Italy, and no one of these can be dated after 150

<sup>2</sup> See the article of Carl Darling Buck, upon "Linguistic Conditions in Italy and Greece," in "Classical Journal," Vol. I, pp. 99-110.

B. C. Among the Samnites, on the other hand, who maintained their independence as allies until the Social War of 91-88 B. C., and were not subject to colonization, the native Oscan dialect persisted even into the first century B. C.

In the history of her expansion in Italy, Rome's policy throughout was tolerant and not insistent upon the superior value of Roman civilization over those of less "efficient" portions of the Italian population. The Romanizing of Italy through the colonies and municipalities was a natural rather than an artificial and forced process.

The greatest result of the municipal and colonizing system of the Roman republic in Italy had been to give Italy the unity and solidarity of a modern territorial state. The local independence left to the municipia tended to foster the sense of political freedom and to preserve the initiative of their citizens. The sphere in which this independence was exercised, was, however, continually more constricted as the power of the state of Rome, that is, the central administration, developed. Yet the *graffiti* of Pompeii have left us a remarkable impression of the vigor and fresh interest displayed in the local elections even in the middle of the first century of our era.

#### THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEM IN THE PROVINCES

In dealing with the municipal system of the provinces which came under Rome's control, a distinction must be made between those which were formed out of the Hellenistic Greek kingdoms, including Sicily, and those of the western countries, such as the Spanish and Gallic provinces, which Rome herself brought within the sphere of the Greco-Roman civilization. In the east, Rome found the governments already highly organized. In general, the Senate had to establish relations of the Roman state as conqueror with four kingdoms, the Macedonian, Pergamene, Selucid, and Egyptian; with several federations of city-states, such as the Achean and Aetolian Leagues; with numerous independent city-states, such as Rhodes, Byzantium, and Athens; and with other city-states which were semi-independent in their relations to the four great kingdoms.

In these lands Greek city-states had been founded lavishly by Alexander and his successors. Municipal organizations, with senate and popular assembly on the Greek model, were long established. Hence, there was little need of expansion by means of Roman and Latin colonies. The policy of Rome was, therefore, dictated by the situation as she found it. In general, the municipalities in the eastern provinces and Sicily fell under two heads, a group of "allied" cities or territorial units (*civitates foederatae*), and a group slightly differentiated from these, the "free and untaxed" communities (*civitates liberae et immunes*). The common privilege of these communities was the acknowledgment by Rome of their freedom in local affairs, that is, home rule through their senate and assembly. This local autonomy included the privilege of their own courts

and laws, their own financial organization, freedom from the billeting of Roman garrisons or soldiers, right of ownership of land (including freedom from the Roman land tax), right of collection and use of land taxes and harbor duties in their own district, the right of coinage, and the right of asylum. In a word, they were theoretically removed from the jurisdiction of the Roman governor of the province within the bounds of which they lay. In all matters of foreign policy, they were, of course, units of the imperial organization and entirely dependent upon Rome. Their general position with relation to the empire may be illustrated by the correspondence between the younger Pliny and the Emperor Trajan in 112 B. C. regarding a petition of the citizens of Amisus in Bithynia. Pliny was in that year a special appointee of the Emperor with pro-praetorian powers over the senatorial province of Bithynia-Pontus. His special task was to investigate and reorganize the finances of the cities of the province. The correspondence (Pliny to Trajan, 91 and 92) reads as follows:

"Gaius Plinius to Trajan, Imperator:

"The free and allied state of Amisus by your kind indulgence enjoys the advantage of its own laws. I have added to this letter a petition given to me in regard to this state, relating to the establishment of benefit-clubs, so that you, my lord, may determine how far, in your opinion, these should be permitted or prohibited."

"Trajan to his Pliny: If the Amiseni, whose petition you have appended to your letter, are granted the right to have a benefit-society by the laws which they enjoy according to the formal obligation of their treaty, we cannot prevent them—all the more so if they use their subscriptions not for the purpose of organizing riotous and illegal gatherings, but for the support of their needy members. In other states which are subject to our law, a thing of this kind ought to be prohibited."

It is evident that the freedom of these allied cities was established in each case by a formal treaty; and Trajan's answer to Pliny clearly marks the distinction between the treatment of the "free and allied cities" and those with a lower grade of autonomy or those subject to the Roman tribute. Despite the theoretic freedom in home affairs from the jurisdiction of the provincial governor, the petition to Pliny shows the tendency of these free cities to refer questions to that official. Every such reference meant a precedent which weakened their autonomy. The principle so clearly formulated by Trajan, that the right of the citizens of Amisus to establish a benefit society rested entirely upon the strict interpretation of their treaty with Rome, indicates the hard and fast limitations set upon the exercise of their "freedom."

Another evidence of the waning of the home rule granted to the cities of this class, whose autonomy was the widest of all the provincial cities, is illustrated in another letter regarding Amisus (Pliny to Trajan, No. 110).



"Gaius Pliny to Trajan, Imperator:

"My lord, the public prosecutor of the city-state of Amisus has sued Julius Piso in my court for about 40,000 denarii, granted to him publicly twenty years ago with the assent of the senate and assembly (of Amisus). The prosecutor rested his case upon your instructions which forbade donations of this kind. Piso, on the other hand, asserted that he had spent a great deal of money in the service of the city, and had almost exhausted his entire fortune. He also pleaded in his defense the lapse of time, and demanded that he be not compelled to repay what he had long ago received in return for many services, claiming that it meant ruin to his present standing."

Freedom had been granted to this city in 47 B. C. by Julius Cæsar. Its position, as a free and allied community, was shared by only one other community in the province so far as we know. This was Chalcedon. The relation of these cities to Rome was the most advantageous which any community could obtain—most comparable to that of the "allies" in Italy in the third century B. C. There is no question but that the freedom of Amisus had lost some of its meaning. Yet it must be remembered that a century and a half had passed since the treaty with Julius Cæsar had been made. Recalling that fact and the complete sway of Rome in the Mediterranean lands, one must conclude that Rome's policy had been one of toleration, and the maintenance of the independence once granted in her treaties with municipalities. Certainly imperial Rome might, long before Trajan's time, have crushed this localized outlet for the political stirrings of her subjects, had this been her desire.

Cicero's orations against Verres give us interesting information upon the number and condition of the communities of Sicily in the lifetime of that politician. Out of 68 communities, only three were of the "free and allied" class. Five were of the "free and untaxed" class. The remaining 60 were subject to the Roman tribute, as were most of the civic communities of Bithynia-Pontus. At this point it is necessary to emphasize one essential distinction between the municipal development in Italy and that in the provinces. This lies in the acceptance by Rome of a theory of land-tenure which she found already well established in the Hellenistic lands, including Sicily, which she absorbed. By this theory the ownership of all land not specifically exempted by treaty with Rome fell to the sovereign state. It became, under the republic, the "domain of the Roman people." Under the empire, as the absolutistic tendency developed, these lands of the Roman people became "imperial" or emperor's domain, and continually increased in extent. The provincial subjects, excepting in the relatively small number of "free" and "allied" communities, under this theory of land-tenure had the right of possession of landed properties, but not the right of full ownership.

#### THE MUNICIPALITIES AND COLONIES IN THE WESTERN PROVINCES OF THE EMPIRE

This Hellenistic theory of land tenure was applied equally in western provinces. It introduced an element into the life of the west which thoroughly vitiated much of the good which might otherwise have accrued from the establishment of communities of Roman citizens with full or partial citizen rights. The spread of citizenship went on apace in the west under the early empire, both by the establishment of actual colonies and by the process of incorporation of already existing communities in the western provinces as municipia, especially those with the so-called Latin, or partial rights of citizenship. Julius Cæsar, reverting to the earlier and broader vision of the elasticity of Roman citizenship, had established many colonies, especially in Gaul and Spain. He also granted to many existing civic communities of the provinces the name and rights of a colony. This was the beginning of the system of "titular colonies," in which there was no actual emigration of Roman citizens to the place now called a colony. The term "colony," therefore, in its meaning approaches the word municipium, and the process in the case of the "titular colonies" was one of incorporation, as in the case of the old municipia of Italy.

Augustus Cæsar, a man of anxious and careful policy, was a reactionary in the matter of granting citizenship by the method of incorporation of alien communities into Roman citizenship. He sent out many colonies of veterans, however, sometimes as a means of securing the military control of newly conquered territories. Such were his veteran colonies in Dalmatia and in the turbulent districts of Spain and Mauretania. These foundations lacked entirely the aspect of state socialism present in the Gracchan colonizing activity. They express the new military empire, and are used by it as a means of providing for the military control of hostile districts and for the future of the veterans of the standing army.

The emperor Claudius reverted to the attitude of Julius Cæsar, and established some "titular colonies" in Gaul. The Flavians and the Antonines are largely responsible for the granting of rights of colonies to the communities in Spain. After the principate of Hadrian, the actual sending out of colonies almost entirely ceased, and the granting of colony rights was "titular," and meant no more than the incorporation of some already existing community intercitizenship. In the first century and a half of the empire, a large number of communities in Spain, in the Danubian provinces and in the provinces of northern Africa, received, in this manner, the standing of colonies or municipalities. In the Gallic provinces, which were organized by Augustus on a special plan in which he made the old Celtic districts the units of administration, the process of developing communities with Roman citizenship proceeded slowly. Consequently, it is especially in Gaul that we may determine the effect of the municipal policy, by noting the slow process of romanization in a country apart from the general system. As the spread of Roman citizenship was never great in Gaul



and the colonies few in number, so the Roman spirit took hold but slowly. It was not until the third century that the influence of the cities became marked in Gaul. The change from the old Celtic territorial districts, established by Augustus, to the administration by city districts, was not completed until the time of Constantine. The brevity and unimportance of the Latin inscriptions of Gaul show how little acquainted the Celts were with the Latin speech. Although Celtic inscriptions are rare after the first century, the Celtic tongue persisted among the people until the fifth century.

#### THE RESULTS OF THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEM UNDER THE EMPIRE AND ITS DECAY

The small political significance which Roman suffrage had had for the provincial citizens who were full Romans, disappeared entirely in the principate of Tiberius, when the elections of Roman magistrates were taken away from the Roman assemblies and given over to the senate. The legislative competence of the Roman assemblies had also become, by that time, a mere formality. As the power and influence of the once sovereign assemblies of citizens at Rome had dwindled, so also in the provincial municipalities the local assemblies gradually lost their vital meaning through a slow process of desiccation during the first two centuries of our era. Yet there can be no doubt that home rule and the very preservation of the forms of local political life during this period helped to keep the breath of independence going in the provincial communities. Even their petty local politics gave a stimulus to mental activity and an added zest to life. This is reflected in the concern of wealthy men for the welfare of their communities, which continued to manifest itself until deep into the second century. It was, perhaps, inevitable that this breath of freedom would eventually be choked off in the heavy atmosphere of the increasing autocracy of the empire. Yet before the end of the real political vitality of the provincial municipalities came they had done a useful service to the world. In the West they had been the central agents in the transmission of the Roman spirit throughout western Europe. In them the Latin tongue first took hold upon the population. Through them the official language seeped out over the country side, carrying with it Greco-Roman civilization. Through them the Roman law gradually won its way over the ancient world, both east and west. Especially in the east, the supplanting of the old laws of the conquered lands by the Roman law was a slow process.<sup>3</sup>

This much lies to the credit of the Roman municipal system in the provinces. In this system the Romans had fathered a great political idea, the idea

of a state composed of a large aggregate of city communities, all members of a great territorial organization. All were to be subordinate to the conquering city. Yet each was to have the opportunity to live its own local life. As we have seen in Pliny's correspondence, Trajan was still desirous of protecting this local freedom of the provincial communities. Why, then, did it fail? Why did the same state which developed the idea of local independence, combined with a share in the responsibilities and rights of the central power, finally smother the life which it gave under the pall of a deadening autocracy? In 202 A. D., Septimius Severus issued a decree establishing senates in all the principal cities of the administrative districts of Egypt. This has been regarded as a boon, as the introduction of independent civic organizations throughout the Nile valley. In 212 A. D., the edict of his son, Caracalla, granted Roman citizenship to all inhabitants of the empire except the *dediticii*, who probably include all those who paid the poll-tax. This, too, has been hailed as a great and wise provision, and it is undoubtedly the logical sequel of several centuries of the development and spread of Roman citizen rights. Actually, however, these two decrees brought greater misery rather than greater freedom, the decree of Severus to the new communities in Egypt, the edict of Caracalla to the new Roman citizens. It is safe to say that after 200 A. D. the "freedom" of the local communities was hollow and meaningless. What had happened between the establishment of the empire and the principate of Severus which had changed the gift of citizenship into a burden and the grant of local government into another form of bondage?

The explanation usually given is that the Roman empire was slowly developing into an autocracy which killed the spirit of political freedom. This statement is true, but it does not really explain anything. The fundamental explanation is, in the writer's judgment, to be found in a vast economic change in the ancient world—in the development of an agrarian system which transformed a free peasantry into peons. It destroyed the agricultural population as a consuming power for the manufactured articles of the industrial cities. Great manorial estates arose in which the peasants were eventually bound to the place where they worked. These estates began to manufacture for their own necessities. In the wake of this development, two things followed: First, the economic ruin of the cities; and, second, the reversion to the old system of exchange in goods and a great decline in the use of commodity money.

As this system spread over the empire, it had a blighting effect upon agricultural production. Despite the inducements offered by the government, agricultural lands began to lie idle and waste fields to increase. The position of the peasants (*coloni*) became so disadvantageous that they began to run away. But the government needed the labor, and finally found it necessary to force the *coloni* to remain where their work and their homes were.

<sup>3</sup> Jules Toutain has proven, against Mommsen's contention, that the provincial colonies adopted the Roman law while the municipia did not necessarily do so. See the article, "Municipium," in Daremberg-Saglio, "Dictionnaire des Antiquités Grecques et Romaines." Mommsen had held that the adoption of Roman law was obligatory upon municipalities as well as colonies.

The effect upon the municipalities was primarily indirect, and came through the ruin of the industrial cities. One direct effect of this evil and widespread agrarian system, however, was brought home to the communities through the establishment of the liturgical system of tax-collection. This was first put into operation during the principate of Tiberius for the land-tax of the provinces. It meant that the wealthier classes of the citizens in the communities were made responsible for the collection and payment of the land-tax, under the supervision of the imperial officials. The municipal senators, called *decuriones*, were usually the absentee owners or lease holders of the large domains. It was easy for the central government to place upon them the obligation of getting in the taxes. Their fortunes, individually and collectively, were a pledge to the government of the fulfillment of this duty. If the taxes failed, the government attached their properties. This explains why Septimius Severus gave the right of having a senate to the metropolises of Egypt, that the new senators might be responsible for the taxes from their districts. Caracalla's edict of citizenship, for all subjects of a certain financial rating, is a piece of the same financial legislation. Considerations of political freedom played no part in its passage.

It was in the second and third centuries that the local senators began to attempt to escape their obligations by flight. To them the central government applied the same remedy as to the fleeing peasants. They were forced to return to their native places, and again take up the burden of their citizen obligations. And finally, before the time of Constantine, they were legally bound to their communities, they and their sons after them and the sons of their sons. So, in the interest of the scheme of imperial taxation, the peasant was bound to his task, the artisan to his trade, and the well-to-do local senator to his responsibilities for the taxes. In the Roman empire of the third and fourth centuries the "Servile State" of Hillaire Belloc was realized. The decay of the municipalities was a part of a great economic failure. The value of municipal freedom throughout the empire was broken by the same economic pressure which converted the free peasant into a serf, the free artisan into an hereditary member of a compulsory guild, and the honor of a local senatorship into an inherited type of taxation bondage.

#### THE SOURCES

Upon the inner organization of the municipalities, we have excellent information contained in a series of municipal inscriptions printed in the *Corpus of Latin Inscriptions*. The Latin text of these are to be found in Dessau, "*Inscriptiones Latinae Selectae*," Vol. II, pp. 482-736, accompanied by a brief commentary in Latin. Seven of these important laws are now available in a trustworthy English translation in E. G. Hardy's "*Six Roman Laws*," Oxford, 1911, and his "*Three Spanish Charters*," Oxford, 1912. The laws included in first of these two books are: 1. The *lex Antonia*, passed between 72 and 70

B. C., fixing the status of Termessus Major in Pisidia as a "free community and exempt from taxation." 2. The *lex municipii Tarentini*, in which the municipal rights of Tarentum were settled, sometime after the war of the Italian allies of 91-89 B. C. had closed. 3. The *lex Rubria* of 49 B. C., which is a general law dealing with the judicial powers of the municipal magistrates in the newly enfranchised towns of Cisalpine Gaul; it is directly connected with Cæsar's success in obtaining the full Roman franchise for Cisalpine Gaul north of the Po river. 4. The *lex Julia Municipalis*, a strange conglomerate passed in 45 B. C., by which Cæsar sought to unify the divergent municipal forms in Italy; this law served as a model for the political organization of the provincial communities in the first century of the Empire. The second book, the "*Three Spanish Charters*," contains the following municipal constitutions which we have, as in the case of the laws given above, in completed form: 1. The *lex Coloniae Genitivae Juliae*, which is the charter of the colony Genitiva Julia, founded by Julius Cæsar, probably in 45 B. C. 2. The *lex Salpensana* is the charter of the *municipium Flavium Salpensanum*, granted to the Spanish town of Salpensa by Domitian between 81 and 84 A. D. 3. The *lex Malacitana* is the municipal grant to the town of Malaca in Spain, which became a municipality at the same time as Salpensa. All of these communities were situated in southeastern Spain.

Using these municipal laws and the information upon Italian city life which we have from Pompeii, one may reconstruct in the most vivid way the life of an imperial *municipium*. This has been done very attractively in Ludwig Friedlander's "*Town Life in Ancient Italy*," Boston, 1902.

Of modern authorities, the following deserve especial mention: Article *municipium* by J. Toutain in Daremberg-Saglio "*Dictionnaire des Antiquités Grecques et Romaines*;" article *colonia* by E. Kornemann in Pauly-Wissowa, "*Real-Lexicon*," Vol. IV; J. Marquard in Marguard-Mommsen, "*Handbuch der römischen Alterthümer*, IV, Part 1; Julius Beloch, "*der italische Bund unter Roms Hegemonie*;" W. Liebenam, "*Städteverwaltung im römischen Kaiserreiche*;" B. W. Henderson in Sandys' "*Companion to Latin Studies*," pp. 366-388; W. T. Arnold, "*Roman Provincial Administration*," 3d edition, 1914; J. S. Reid, "*The Municipalities of the Roman Empire*," Cambridge, 1913, which is by far the most detailed presentation of the subject that we have.

"The United States and the Peace Treaty" is the title of an article by Oswald Garrison Villard, in the "*North American Review*" for March. Mr. Villard defends the policy of strict neutrality which is being followed by the Wilson administration, and points out that such a course is necessary in order that the United States have an opportunity at the close of the war to use its influence towards bringing about a just and lasting peace.

## Programs for Greek History Entertainments

BY KATE M. MONRO.

Innumerable books of pieces suitable for entertainments by English classes are to be found in every library. When the edict goes forth for a teacher of English to make up an interesting program, she is embarrassed with the wealth of material she finds in convenient form. Not so is it with the teacher of history. There are no scores of books of "the best prize speeches" arranged for her. She must use her own ingenuity if her program is to be enjoyable.

To no more entertaining subject can she turn than to the ever-fascinating one of Greek myths.

With a good stage, plenty of time for preparation, and enthusiastic pupils, wonderful results may be secured. Tableaux of Athena, of Demeter, or of Orpheus and Eurydice; scenes from the "Iliad" or the "Odyssey;" or the dramatization of whole stories, such as that of Pandora, would be effective.

But suppose the instructor has little time to devote to the preparation of such a program, that he has only an hour for the entertainment, busy pupils for actors, and no stage. With such drawbacks as these, what can he do? At first, he feels hopeless, but when he stops to think of the many British and American writers, especially poets, who have been inspired by Greek stories, he takes heart and begins a hunt for material.

The following programs, given in detail, are simply suggestive of many similar ones that may be arranged:

### FIRST PROGRAM.

#### SOME GREEK MYTHS IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

1. Paper: "The Value of Greek Myths to Us Because of their Influence on Our Literature." References: Preface to Bulfinch's "Age of Fable." Introduction to Gayley's "Classic Myths."
2. "The Story of Pandora." Reference: Hawthorne's "Wonder Book."
3. "Shepherd of King Admetus," by Lowell.
4. "A Musical Instrument," by Mrs. Browning.
5. The story of Pygmalion and Galatea. References: Gayley's "Classic Myths," quotations from Andrew Lang's "The New Pygmalion."
6. Wordsworth's sonnet, "The World is Too Much with Us."

### SECOND PROGRAM.

#### THE TROJAN WAR.

1. Paper: "Brief Account of the War."
2. Recitation: Introductory remarks, explaining story of Iphigeneia. Landor's "Iphigeneia and Agamemnon."
3. Stories about Achilles. Reference: "Iliad."
4. Parting of Hector and Andromache. Bryant's translation or Mrs. Browning's "Hector and Andromache."
5. Death of Hector. Bryant's translation of the "Iliad."

6. Mourning for Hector.

7. Story of the Wooden Horse. References: Gayley, Bulfinch.

### THIRD PROGRAM.

#### ADVENTURES OF ULYSSES.

1. Story of the Wooden Horse as Ulysses might have told it.
2. Ulysses' Adventures with Polyphemus.
3. Circe's Enchantments.
4. Passing the Sirens.
5. Song: "The Lorelei."
6. Selections from Tennyson's "Lotos-Eaters," with explanations of the story.
7. Ulysses' Visit to Phæacia.
8. Ulysses' Return to Ithaca. Palmer's translation of the "Odyssey."
9. Reading: Tennyson's "Ulysses."

### FOURTH PROGRAM.

1. Paper: "The Position of Zeus Among the Greek Gods." References: Gayley's "Classic Myths."
  2. Story of Zeus and Prometheus, with selections from Longfellow's "Prometheus."
  3. Recitation of parts of "Europa and the Bull." Lloyd Mifflin's translation from "Moschus."
  4. Description of the statue of Zeus by Phidias. Reference: Tarbell's "History of Greek Art."
  5. Recitation: Charles Wharton Stork's "Gany-mede."
  6. Recitation: Charles Wharton Stork's "To Zeus."
- Similar programs grouped around other heroes or divinities might be arranged; while still others, based on authentic history, would prove interesting. An excellent topic would be the Spartans.

### PROGRAM.

1. Paper: "Spartan Life."
2. Recitation: "The Spartans' March," by Mrs. Hemans.
3. Readings from C. Dale Snedeker's novel, "The Coward of Thermopylæ."
4. Recitation: "On those who died at Thermopylæ." John Sterling's translation of the lines by Simonides.

Other themes which have not failed to attract our writers are: "The Battles of Marathon and Salamis," "The Race of Pheidippides," "The Fall of Corinth," "The Greek Poets," and the "Deeds of Alexander the Great."

Good programs could also be made on the following: "The Home Life of the Greeks," "Excavations in Greece," "Greek Treasures in Certain Museums," "The Ancient and Modern Olympian Games," and a "Visit to Ancient or to Modern Greece."



## Vitalizing the History Work

BY R. D. CHADWICK, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, EMERSON SCHOOL, GARY, INDIANA

We have found that if the work can be made of social value, the interest of the pupils is enlarged, and the greater the interest, the greater is the incentive to work, and to do better work. If a pupil is led to see that his work will be of value, not only to himself, but to the other pupils, or that his work will be of value to his parents and to other men and women that he knows, then his desire to do good work is kindled. How we are doing this in history, civics and geography, is as follows:

For several years a sand table has been a part of the regular equipment of the history department. On this, various students of the two upper grammar grades are assigned to reproduce the topography of some locality which is being studied in history, or geography, or perhaps both. The latter was the case with a recently constructed relief map of a part of western Europe. Those assigned to do it took great pride in doing the work, and their eyes showed their pride when the sand table was discussed in class.

In the spring of 1912 when we were using our first sand map of the Gettysburg battlefield, the following incident took place. It shows the possibilities of this simple piece of apparatus in making some parts of history clear and real, and it shows an unsolicited and an impersonal estimate of the value of the results. Two days were taken to describe the incidents leading up to the battle, and the battle itself, basing my talk upon the clear description given in Rhodes' "History of the United States," Vol. IV. The members of each class taking the work sat or stood around the sand table where they could see it clearly. The day following the completion of the oral description I called upon a little girl near the center of the room to tell the story of the battle. She started out without hesitating at the beginning of the series of events leading up to the battle. Hardly had she begun, when nearly twenty men came into the room and ranged themselves along the front and side. She glanced up, her voice trembled a little, then her eyes sought mine, and she evidently saw a message there, "Do your best." She did not take her eyes away from mine during the following minutes, perhaps ten, she did not miss an important point in the narration; it was clear to her, and she made it clear to every one in the room. She sat down. The men filed out, but before the door closed we heard something that sounded like this, "That is the finest history recitation I ever heard." The youngsters heard it, too, so I know that it was not my own thought. We learned later in the day that we were being visited by the superintendents of the city schools of Wisconsin. The parents of this little girl came from Hungary. She is now in my most advanced high school class, and

last year, as a sophomore, she took first prize in the Lake County Inter-Scholastic Oratorical Contest. I remember this above all of my experiences with the sand table, and never have I been disappointed with the results.

The Panama Canal can be more readily understood and remembered after it has been constructed in sand, and others might be mentioned.

While the sand table is largely used with the seventh and eighth grade pupils, not so with maps and charts. A few years ago students of the high school classes were assigned special maps, and many fine maps were made. They were too small to be used in the recitation, and could only be preserved by filing them away out of sight. They aided only the pupil who made them. For several years our high school students have constructed many wall charts and maps illustrating many phases of ancient, medieval, modern, American and South American history. They last many years, the same as do expensive maps and charts which are published by many large firms in this country. Usually they are assigned to a student as a special problem, the same as a special report is assigned to be written from research work in the library. Many students enjoy drawing, and history can attract their interest in this way—and very profitably. The student who has made a creditable map showing the migrations of the Germans, will have a more vivid picture of the situation than the student who has worked out a written report, and it will stay with him longer. We are using maps that were made three years ago, thus proving that the work was of social value.

The idea of making cloth wall maps and charts did not come to me from reading Channing, Hart and Turner's "Guide," or other standard works on "How to teach history," but rather from the fact that before I went to college, and after, too, when at home, during the summer vacation, I used to use "sign cloth" in my father's retail store. We bought a few yards of sign cloth at eight cents a yard, and tried it out in the history room. Our first map was "Europe at the Height of Napoleon's Power." It was a success. Sign cloth will take drawing ink all right, but has its disadvantages when an erasure is necessary. Now as to the way a map is made, we find that the following is one of the easiest, namely, mark off the map you wish to reproduce in one inch or one-half inch squares; then figure how many times the small map is capable of being enlarged; the only limitation is the size of the material upon which you are intending to draw the map. Supposing you find that the large map will be six times as large as the small one; then lay out a rectangle six times as large, and reproduce the squares upon the same en-





FIG. 1



FIG. 2

VIEWS OF THE HISTORY DEPARTMENT ROOMS, EMERSON SCHOOL, GARY, IND. (See description, page 120)

larged scale. Make the outline with a pencil; then ink it, letter it, and color it. This latter work will be improved with each succeeding map. Ordinary drawing crayons serve excellently for coloring. The flat card writer's pen is invaluable in making wide lines and large letters. Before coloring the map, it will look better if the squares are erased, and this will be an easy task if they were put on lightly with a hard lead pencil.

As I intimated above, sign cloth has its disadvantages. We discovered that paper companies make a cloth used by the printer or bookbinder in plain white and light shades that is in every way the superior of sign cloth. By buying it in the bolt it costs twelve or fifteen cents a yard. Another method is to use a good quality of paper—not too heavy or stiff, and then paste it upon muslin. The map or chart is mounted by strips at top and bottom. A series of maps on the same subject may be mounted at the top only.

If desired, charts and maps may be traced on tracing paper, and then a blue print or blue prints made. By printing upon cloth, a very durable map is the result. A white print is secured by the Vandyke process.

Of the same type of work is the Roman Temple, which was constructed in 1912 by a student of Roman history. It is about five feet in length, and stands in the hall opposite the history room. It is our "barber sign." It is also more than that. It is invaluable to show the construction of Greek and Roman temples, and the modifications made by the Romans. Many pupils of all grades stop and look at it every day, and they have done so for three years. The boy who constructed it saw a model city of Rome on exhibition at Chicago, and upon being asked if he could not reproduce something of the sort, he said that he thought he could, and he did.

Recently a class in modern history studied the history of the rise and decline of the Turkish Empire. Then the class wrote accounts of it, and the three best were selected to appear in the three Gary daily papers. By so doing, their work was of value to the community, and it served as an incentive to get the work well done. Other articles of like type have been written, and printed in the daily papers, history department bulletins, and the student publication.

History work cannot be adequately carried on without numerous written and oral reports. Live subjects are assigned in these classes for oral reports, with the understanding that if they are of sufficient merit they will be given in the auditorium before four or five hundred pupils, many of whom may not be taking history, but who thereby are benefited by our work, and perhaps interested in it. The report so given has a marked social value. The auditorium is an unmitigated blessing to effective history work.

To be more concrete in regard to the vitalizing influence of the auditorium upon history reports and debates, we will give a few of the subjects which have been discussed by history students before the auditorium audience:

#### *Debates:*

Resolved, That Germany was the aggressor in the present war. (Modern History Class.)

Resolved, That immigrants should be able to read. (Ancient History Class.)

Resolved, That Lee was a greater general than Grant. (Eighth year United States History Class.)

Resolved, That Indiana should have a new constitution. (Civics Class.)

Resolved, That Gary should be made a second-class city. (Civics Class.)

#### *Oral Reports:*

(1) The Irish Question.

(2) Growth of the British Empire in South Africa.

(3) How Japan Became a World Power.

(4) The Balkan War.

(5) Recent Social Legislation.

(Above from the Modern History Classes.)

#### *Oral Reports:*

(1) The Persian Invasion.

(2) Architecture of Greece and Rome.

(3) Home Life of the Ancient Greeks.

(4) Sports in Athens and Rome.

(5) Hannibal.

(Above from the Ancient History Classes.)

#### *Special Programs:*

(1) Washington's Birthday. (Eighth Grade.)

(2) Lincoln's Birthday. (Eighth Grade.)

(3) A Newspaper. (Each pupil in a class gave the news of a department.)

(4) Illustrated program: The Capitals of the Countries at War.

(5) Student Council Campaigns.

Studies of local civic concern are of marked immediate value to the community, if they can be diffused among the citizens. They are ultimately of value to the community by having intelligent citizens as the product of the schools. Where you get both immediate and future results at the same time, then the work must be doubly valuable. In connection with study of modern Europe, one of our classes is working on the problem of municipal betterment. One phase of this is adequate parking facilities. Starting from Gary, this class is studying parks, and will publish its special research reports in a bulletin. Other departments of the school are making their work of intrinsic value to the individual and community, and the history department will not be left out. This is only a beginning of what the history department hopes to do in this practical line of work. Kings and queens may die, but the problems of the American city are going to be increasingly of great importance. This work is of the utmost social value.



FIG. 3



FIG. 4

VIEWS OF THE HISTORY DEPARTMENT ROOMS, EMERSON SCHOOL, GARY, IND. (See description, pages 120-121)



## CONTEMPORARY HISTORY

During the past three years, there have been disorders, convulsions and tumult within and among the nations of the world. For example, the Balkan Wars, the Mexican situation, and the present European struggle. We have found that the interest in affairs that has resulted from these conditions has turned the attention of the pupil of the upper grades, and the student of the high school to the newspaper and magazine without any direction by teachers. The interest so kindled should be directed. It should be directed to other subjects than war. It forms the most stimulating basis for studying the causes of war, such as commercial and industrial development, nature of the governments, race jealousies and animosities, and cultural development. In 1912-1913 my classes in modern history were anxious to study the past of the Balkan peninsula in order to understand the reason for the alliance against the Turkish Empire. In 1913-1914 a like interest was kindled in the history of Mexico, and American relations with the Spanish-American republics. During the autumn of 1914 the study of the past two centuries of Western European history was conducted without effort because of the interest in the great European war.

Pictures from magazines and newspapers have been mounted and are being preserved. One of the Chicago papers has been issuing a series of double-page maps, full-page portraits and like interesting data, which we have mounted and will retain in our collection of illustrative materials. A few newspaper headlines, cartoons and pictures mounted and preserved will be very valuable a few years hence, to show that what the manuals describe were real events.

There are various methods of handling contemporary history. Bulletin boards are valuable for displaying noteworthy clippings. One of the seventh year classes has kept a bulletin board full of clippings, classified as follows: Foreign news; American news (United States, North and South America); State news; city and country; pictures and cartoons. Another bulletin board is used for editorials and news of especial value to a topic being studied, as for example, parks.

Special reports from newspapers and magazines have always been a satisfactory method of encouraging magazine and newspaper reading, and directing it into the proper channels. During the year 1914-1915, the ancient history class has been devoting each Friday to contemporary history. A weekly digest of the events is kept in the history notebook. They are arranged as follows: 1. Foreign events (three). 2. National (three). 3. Local (four). A summary of each event is written together with the reference. Fifteen or twenty minutes of the Friday period is given up to reading notes, and an analysis of what was most noteworthy. The rest of the time is taken up with reports upon assigned magazine articles, especially from the "Literary Digest," the "Outlook" and the "Independent." An occasional

debate is assigned upon a current topic of interest. The best of the reports and debates are given in the auditorium.

For several months this class subscribed for the "Independent," paying five cents for each copy. This magazine has published several pamphlets full of good ideas upon the use of magazines in history classes. One of the most helpful articles upon the subject was published in the "Outlook" for August 26, 1914. It has always been my belief that newspapers and magazines try to give the people what they want, and these magazines have correctly come to the conclusion that there is a growing demand for training in the use of the magazine and newspaper. It follows, then, that if we teach a child to prefer the substantial and not the sensational news, that the man and woman of to-morrow will demand and get better and cleaner newspapers and magazines.

American history, civics, modern European history and economics cannot be adequately studied without constant use of magazines and newspapers. Neither should an ancient history class be allowed to go through a year upon a diet from five thousand to eight hundred years of age without some attention to contemporary men and affairs. Suppose the boy or girl leaves school after his year of ancient history, or does not elect history again, he is hopelessly handicapped, if he goes out into the world without some instruction in the present and the literature of the present. From what has been said above, it will be seen that we believe that the study of contemporary history is a vitalizing force.

## HISTORY GAMES

Some time back we discovered that some of the pupils of the grades were carrying around in their pockets soiled packs of cards. The one that we preserved and have on file is the so-called game of "Old Maid." This belonged to a seventh year youngster. He belonged to a class which met for history work the last hour of the day. Several expedients were used to enliven the period, and the captured pack of cards led to trying out a game of "Explorers." Several games were devised to be played by the pupil when alone, and two or more may play a game similar to the game of "Authors." The tables in the history room are admirable for this sort of activity, and each youngster enjoyed it from the beginning. One day each week is given to the game. Each pupil made his own pack, and on game-day he always brings it in.

The next period that will be vitalized will be the colonial period, 1607 to 1763. The game will be known as the "Game of Colonies." Next will come the "Revolutionary Game;" followed by "Statesmen," "Treaties," "Inventions," "New Territories," "Soldiers" and the like. The play instinct can thus be directed and used in mastering much valuable information (of facts) which every child should know. Our experience tends to show that games properly subordinated and directed increase the interest in history work.



## THE STUDENT COUNCIL

The Student Council is an institution which has helped to vitalize our civics work. It is more than an institution of social value. It is a means of studying some of the most important lessons of good government by the laboratory method.

What the Student Council is may be gained by quoting from an article written by a boy for the high school paper in March, 1914:

The object of organizing the Student Council in the Emerson School was not for the purpose of "bossing" or ruling the school, for such a thing would be impossible, but the purpose of this body is to look out for the interests of the students. As the constitution of the Student Council states, "the object shall be to centralize the activities of the student body, to increase the school spirit, and to encourage high standards in all phases of school endeavor."

In the first place, the organization of the Student Council gives the students valuable practice in civic training. Voting is a very important act, one which every citizen must do. Many people do not realize its importance when they cast their ballots. Another fact which many people do not realize is that every boy and girl is a citizen. Therefore, it is expedient and necessary that every boy and girl should be taught correctly in regard to voting. A voter should know what candidates he wants to vote for as the best representatives of his idea of the public good. He should inquire about them and find out whether they have been honest and efficient, should learn their arguments, and see what policies they support. He should be thoroughly convinced of their qualities himself, and should not depend entirely upon the advice of others.

For these reasons the Student Council campaign and elections give valuable training. Our first election was held in November, 1913, on the same day as the municipal election. The two strong parties in the city election were the Citizens, and the Democratic. The same parties were represented in the school election. The followers of these respective parties, in the eighth to the twelfth grades, held preliminary meetings, and each class nominated a girl and a boy as candidates. Each party elected a campaign manager, who arranged a program for the campaign, during which the candidates made speeches, telling their views and giving arguments upon their policies. The election offered still more profitable training. It is doubtful if more than a small percentage of the students in the school knew how to cast a ballot. Ballots were printed by the school press, booths erected, judges appointed, and the election was carried on in an orderly manner. This gave the students the actual experience of casting ballots.

The ten students elected to the Student Council, one boy and one girl from the eighth to the twelfth grades, respectively, then elected officers and adopted a constitution. . . . (Lewis Stone, first president of Student Council.)

## NEWSPAPER UPON THE SCHOOL ELECTIONS

Election of councilmen is taking place at the Emerson School to-day. Yesterday the candidates made campaign speeches in the Auditorium. Bernard Szold, the candidate for the Citizens' party, made one of the strongest speeches of the morning.

"If our side wins, as it is sure to do," he declared, "such matters as have been dangling will be attended to at once. Take, for instance, the matter of our school monograms. Some of our local sporting stores have been selling the emblem for which we have to work so hard in the field and

in the gym. to anybody and everybody. Shall we who are ready to give our whole strength and energy to fight until we are exhausted and ready to drop for the sake of school victory, stand idly by and see our colors being sold to whomever has the price? I have protested, so have many others who know what it means to fight for our gold and gray, but it has been of no avail. If the Citizens' party is elected, we will act at once upon this and similar issues, and you may be assured of a business-like, progressive administration."

The purpose of the Council is to support athletics, direct social affairs, and general matters of school life. The election is being supported by . . . , the teacher of civics, and it is a part of the school's general plan of supplementing their regular classes with practical work in which the students will take an active interest. Returns will be made to-day, and the pupils are as eagerly awaiting results as their elders in the city election. (Gary "Daily Tribune," November, 1913.)

"Republicans," "Democrats" and "Progressives," all attending public school, are lining up their forces for a battle on election day, November 3.

Although the political struggle will come on the same day as candidates are battling for state and county offices, the school politics have nothing to do with the big affair, but it means as much at the Emerson School, because the councilmen who are to be elected are to administrate many of the affairs of the school.

The Democrats have arranged a campaign platform which has nothing about tariff and such things, and two candidates from the eighth grade, freshmen, sophomore, junior and senior classes are seeking votes. From nearly every grade there is a girl candidate for councilman. Following are the "Democratic" aspirants for office:

Eighth grade .....	John Knotts
Freshman.....	Randolph Hancock and Eva Dunlap
Sophomore .....	John Kyle
Junior.....	H. Carlton and Madge Kyle
Senior.....	G. Wilson and Flossie Kilbourne

In the platform of these candidates, the following planks are incorporated:

- Students' rights.
- National respect by schools.
- Stronger athletic support.
- Student and faculty co-operation.
- Stronger school organization.
- Interesting auditorium periods.
- Better school functions at a minimum cost.

The Student Council which will be elected from one of the three "parties" will have charge of school entertainments, other athletic events, auditorium periods, supervision of invitations to school dances and other affairs, and many other items of school administration.

"Political" meetings are to be held in the auditorium each day this week by the three parties in preparation for election Tuesday. (Gary "Daily Tribune," October 28, 1914.)

The students themselves had these articles printed, and used them as campaign material. Several candidates had the "campaign card" sometimes seen in municipal and other local elections printed with a half-tone of the candidate and an invitation to vote for him. Properly supervised, we believe in this student organization as a vitalizing force for civic instruction.

## AN OUTGROWTH OF A STUDENT CAMPAIGN

After hearing the arguments of their own candidates given from the auditorium, it was logical that the value of hearing all sides of the political issues at one meeting should occur to both teacher and students. Accordingly, a mass meeting for voters was arranged. The city chairmen of the parties in the November 4, 1914, election promised to send able speakers before this meeting.

Ordinary voters who have heard tariff and railroad rates, state expenditures, county bond issues, votes for women, new constitutions and scandals concerning the characters of the candidates bandied around until they cannot tell which party is the worst, are going to have a chance to hear the issues of each party stated in a clear and definite manner, side by side, so they can take their choice under the direction of the schools.

A big mass meeting at the Emerson School auditorium is arranged for next Wednesday evening, at which the Republican, Democratic, Progressive and Socialist parties will be represented by one speaker each. The speakers will be given thirty minutes in which to present the case of their parties.

Mud slinging will be absolutely barred. The talks will have to do with the party the speaker represents, and not with the faults of the others, and it is hoped in this manner voters who really want to know the issues without ploughing through tons of muck and mire may find what they are voting for.

The plan was worked out by the Student Council of the Emerson School. This organization is conducted on political lines, officers being elected on the same scale as a municipal election. The Council is composed of all the grades from the eighth to the twelfth, one boy and one girl being elected to represent each class. Caucuses are held, and on November 3 of each year an election to choose a president and other officers is held.

The Council meets each week, and has charge of school affairs in general, supervises invitations to school dances, provides entertainment at auditorium periods and other entertainments. Louis Kuss, representing the juniors, is president. His successor and other officers will be elected on November 3.

Prof. R. D. Chadwick, who has been assisting the Council in the arrangements for the voters' meeting next Wednesday, has already received promises of speakers from the Democratic and Socialist parties, and the Republican speaker will be secured to-day. The Progressives will be interviewed to-day, and asked to send a speaker to the meeting. The public will be welcomed to the meeting. (Gary "Daily Tribune," October 22, 1914.)

The results of this meeting were all that could be desired. The main floor of the auditorium was filled with an audience of about seven hundred; of this number five hundred were voters. The students had decorated the platform appropriately with the Stars and Stripes. The speakers spoke earnestly and with dignity. At least five hundred voters were able to vote more intelligently than would otherwise have been the case. We believe that the voters will welcome meetings of this kind in the future campaigns. The students felt that they had done something of social value.

The meeting, one of the most unique that has ever been held in connection with a heated campaign, was under the

auspices of the Student Council of the Emerson School. They threw open the auditorium, and invited every voter in the city to come and hear the claims of all parties presented clearly, concisely and without clouding the main issues.

The auditorium was packed, and it is estimated that nearly one thousand voters listened eagerly to all of the exponents of the four parties.

Mayor R. O. Johnson presented the Republican case in a remarkably clear and masterful speech. A storm of applause greeted him after he had finished his address.

Dan White, a Socialist speaker of Chicago, was an eloquent orator, and outlined the Socialist views concisely. Rev. Eric I. Lindh told why he believes the Progressive party should receive the people's votes, and Attorney George B. Hershman, of Crown Point, presented the Democratic side in a thorough manner.

Teaching voters how to vote by giving them a chance to know what the parties actually stand for has never before been done by a school, but as it was considered an educative rather than a political meeting, it was sanctioned by the school authorities.

COMMENT OF AN EX-PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL  
THE STUDENT COUNCIL

The Student Council of the Emerson School has been organized now for over a year, and it has established beyond a doubt that it is here to stay. The Council has shown in its different activities and duties that it is worth while, and the students of the school realize that it is no longer an experiment, and it is respected accordingly.

The object of the Student Council is to work for the welfare of the school and students, and it has accomplished much in spite of all the obstacles that any new organization must surmount, and has done some very fine and successful work.

The Student Council takes charge of the auditorium periods, elects a president and secretary every month for them, and this gives the students elected to these positions a fine training, and especially in controlling themselves. For example: A boy who may be a little careless in his conduct may be elected to the presidency of an auditorium period. He naturally tends to set an example for other students while he occupies the chair, and the feeling of pride in his honorary position will stay with him after his term of office expires.

A program for the raising of the flag has been successfully carried out, and it will tend to make the students more enthusiastic patriots.

During the campaign great rivalry exists between the respective candidates; speeches are made and answered; each party has a manager and a platform. The interest of the students is very keen. The students hear each platform expounded, and why they should cast their ballot a certain way. They always hear each candidate, and as the candidates are all well known, no one is sure who are the lucky ones until the votes are counted. Each election room is presided over, as in the city elections, and everything adds to the students' instruction, both as voters and as election officials.

After the votes are counted, and the lucky candidates are congratulated, the old Council turns the business over to the new. The old members make little talks, and the new members take their places. Good feeling prevails between the defeated candidates and the newly elected. As one of the former, I can truthfully say that although the defeat is keenly felt, we feel that we have done our best. The winners were the choice of the majority, and we have noth-

ing but the best of wishes toward the success of the lucky candidates and a successful year for the Council.

The members of the Student Council desire to benefit the school and students, and to do good, earnest, conservative work, and with the co-operation of the faculty, there is not a doubt but that the Council of future years will be an indispensable organization of the (high) school. L. D. Kuss.

#### EQUIPMENT OF THE HISTORY LABORATORY

The history room should be a laboratory for the study of history as much as the chemistry room is a laboratory for the study of chemistry. The history room of the Emerson School is equipped with twenty tables, five feet long, and from twenty to thirty inches wide. Thus the first thing that is noticed upon entering the room is that the conventional desk is missing. A table of this size enables students to make charts and maps as well as if they were in a drafting room. It also gives the greatest flexibility in seating. The front tables easily seat four or five, and the others three, although as a rule two sit and work at each table. Should one student want a whole table for his chart, the others may easily go to another table. These tables were designed and built in the Emerson shops.

The wall space of the room is usually occupied with illustrative material—maps, charts, pictures and the like. The rear end of the room is wired so that pictures may be easily hung up. The wall space of the halls near the history room are likewise utilized. Students often stop and examine maps and pictures when they have leisure as they come through the halls.

The branch of the public library in the Emerson School is near the history room, and this is an invaluable aid in conducting outside readings in source books and the standard manuals. Many standard reference books are placed in the book cabinets of the room. No history room can be without dictionaries of geography and biography, as well as the usual unabridged dictionary, historical and standard encyclopædias and atlases. The pupils of the grades are taught how to use them before they take up the high school courses.

In the halls near the history room are several large cabinets in which historical relics are on display. A gentleman of the city loaned us his collection of Indian relics for nearly a year, and from this collection many concrete things concerning Indian life and dress have been taught many children. In another cabinet we have a collection of pottery from Central America. As a further piece of illustrative material of this sort are the Babylonian tablets which are framed between glass, exposing both sides. Anything of historic value which citizens are willing to

loan can thus be taken care of and turned to good use, as well as thereby preserving our own valuable relics.

Bulletin boards are used in the history room and in the halls for displaying newspaper pictures, cartoons and articles, postcards and other pictures unmounted. This convenient means of handling current news is worth while.

In connection with the auditorium we are enabled to use the stereopticon machine for throwing pictures on the screen to illustrate history and geography re-



FIG. 5  
A CORNER OF HISTORY ROOM, EMERSON SCHOOL, GARY, IND.  
(See description, page 121)

ports. A program in which the stereopticon or moving picture machine is used is always enjoyed by the students, as well as being very profitable.

We like the idea of calling the history room a "workshop." We believe that all illustrative materials should aid in the main object in teaching history, and not become an end in themselves. Our experience is that there is too little use of such expedients for enlivening history work than too much. On this point one of our foremost educators says:

"Too many maps, even large ones from the government, too incessant reference to geography, and especially too many pictures, lantern slides, perhaps games with history cards, it seems to me, some authorities to the contrary notwithstanding, we can hardly have."

We believe the equipment for vital history teaching includes more than just a room where pupils come to recite and hear lectures. Historical materials should not be confined to one recitation room. The walls of the recitation room should be used, and also the walls in the halls adjoining the history room. Special reports, debates and the like should be heard in the class room, but also in the auditorium or assembly room. Books should be used in the history room, but also in the library.



## DESCRIPTION OF EMERSON SCHOOL HISTORY ROOMS

## HISTORY ROOM, EMERSON SCHOOL, VIEWED FROM REAR.

FIG. 1

There are twelve maps or charts shown in this picture; of this number nine were made by the students of the history department. Above the book cabinet, at the left side, is a sample "Official National and State Ballot." It was secured during a campaign without charge; pasted upon muslin and mounted with strips at top and bottom. It has done good service for several years as a chart in studying elections. Next is a map of "The German Empire Since 1871." This was made as a special problem by two eleventh year students in the spring of 1912. It shows distinctly the territorial preponderance of Prussia. Beneath this is a chart, "Analysis of the Civil War." The boy who made this was compelled to leave school for several years and earn his living. He worked in the drafting department of one of the Gary Mills, and this is only one of the blue print charts he constructed during a year of history and civics study, after he was able to return and continue his studies. In the spring of 1914 he was the Gary representative in an interscholastic debate. The other contestants represented the other counties of our congressional district. He tied for the first honors. Next in order are maps showing "The Free and Slave States," "Seventy Years of Territorial Growth," "Europe at the Height of Napoleon's Power," "Mexico," "The Western Theatre of the European War," and finally a blue print map entitled, "European War Map," 1914. Copies of the latter map were sent to the other schools.

The maps purchased from publishers are also displayed as far as there is space to show them, and as they are needed. A few maps are rolled up and stand in the corners, as you may see, but we endeavor to have them out and working, if not in the room, then out in the halls adjoining the history room.

The picture of Kaiser Wilhelm II was drawn by one of the tenth year boys, who is an ardent German sympathizer. All the other pictures were mounted on cards by the pupils at various times during the past three years. The picture of President Wilson is a pen sketch, the original of the picture printed in the instructor's "Brief History."

The cabinet at the left is used in part for filing mounted pictures (from newspapers, magazines and purchased half-tones). On the top of this cabinet are the "Congressional Records," which our congressman sends to us, and which have been used extensively in preparing debates.

The cabinet on the right contains the reference books and manuals used daily. Among them are forty geographies, the dictionaries, encyclopedias and atlases.

Upon the table with the globe are twelve genuine Babylonian tablets, mounted in a frame, with glass on both sides. A card tells the age of the tablet and a translation of the inscription. With this mounting they are easily passed about the class for examination, and still they are incapable of being mutilated.

The tables give a flat surface five feet long by twenty inches wide, with the exception of six tables, which are wider. The tops are soft, and thus make the use of thumb tacks a matter of expediency. In this picture the tables are covered with a heavy green cardboard. This does not interfere with the use of thumb tacks.

## HISTORY ROOM, EMERSON SCHOOL, VIEWED FROM FRONT.

FIG. 3

The rear wall of the history room is wired for the convenient hanging of illustrative material. The material shown in this picture is of a type which we have found very helpful, and which represents very little expenditure

of time or money. The pictures above the blackboard are a few that have been published in the newspapers and magazines illustrating European war news. A few of these preserved will be valuable in teaching history a few years hence. Beneath these are "Instructions to Voters," printed in English and German; two sample referendum ballots (these were state constitutional amendments voted upon in November, 1914); sample township, county, state, city and our own school ballots; the "How to Vote" window-card with which the October, 1914, voters' meeting was advertised. On the right are several interesting maps and pictures in color, published in the "Chicago Sunday Tribune" during the autumn of 1914. They are pasted upon a stout manila card. This kind of material when placed in the halls always attracts the attention of children in the grades, high school students, and the adults who attend the Emerson evening school.

The large maps shown here illustrate a fact that will appeal to every student and teacher of history, namely, that if the map is convenient for instant use it will be used much more frequently than if time is consumed in getting it ready for use. Every week the maps are arranged to anticipate the needs of the coming week. No student is allowed to give a recitation or a report involving geographical points without placing it upon a map before the class. It is a student's business to see that Asia is present and upon the wall if a point in Asia is to be mentioned.

Sometimes the illustrative material in the rear of the room is not as orderly in appearance as shown in this picture. In fact, it sometimes is several layers deep, but the rear of the room is always *silently at work*.

The children of the eighth and seventh grades who come into this room often ask about maps and charts which are being used by the high school students, and the instructor has occasionally taken the time to explain an event in ancient or modern European history to a class studying American history. An European background can in this manner be made clear. An example of this is the use of a map entitled, "The Iberian Peninsula, 1492." The interest aroused in the advanced history work is a bond which helps to keep the grammar grade pupils on the road to high school graduation.

This works both ways. The high school students are usually interested in the work of the younger pupils, and a short digression serves to review the work that they have had. The eighth grade Civil War chart, showing some of the military movements with considerable detail, is always used by the senior high school classes for a rapid survey of the war. Thus it might be said that the younger pupils are pulled toward the graduation goal, and the older students are pushed toward it by the elimination of the break between the elementary and the secondary schools, which is made possible in the Gary schools.

## VIEW OF A HALL IN THE EMERSON SCHOOL. FIG. 2

This shows clearly how the walls of the hall adjoining the history room are used with maps, charts, cabinets, and how some of the floor space is used with the sand table and a model.

The two charts which appear in the immediate foreground are the most pretentious which we have ever made. They were reproduced upon this enlarged scale by the school painting instructor, with the assistance of history students working in his department. No one can study the "Bird's-eye View of the Panama Canal" without gaining a clear idea of this remarkable piece of engineering. One aspect of the Mexican civil strife is made clear by the chart, "Elements of the Mexican Republic." The map adjoining was seen in the picture of the front part of the

history room, and this illustrates how they are transferred from halls to the room and vice versa. If a chart in the hall is needed, a student quickly brings it into the class room.

The maps above the cabinets were made as problems in ancient and modern history classes. At the time this picture was taken, the period to which they apply was not being studied in class, but they are educationally active. The students who made them often point to them and claim authorship.

The sand table in the foreground is not being used in the class room, and in consequence it appears in the hall. Countless youngsters may be seen about it when they have a few leisure moments. This teaches a child many things, and without his knowing that he is being taught.

The first cabinet shows its contents clearly. This is a part of the school collection of Central American pottery. The mass of material that a child may see in a metropolitan museum is so great that unless frequent and very carefully directed visits are made, he carries away very confused ideas. No one thing stands out with distinctness. This small collection of pottery coming daily into the vision of the child is bound to leave a definite picture, and one that will not immediately fade.

In the background is a Roman temple that will remain for many years a monument to the work and skill of a boy who graduated from the Emerson School in 1914. As is stated elsewhere, it is very valuable in the study of Greek and Roman architecture. Perhaps we will never have another boy with the persistence, coupled up with the skill in the use of tools that he possessed. He will never forget this piece of work, and his work has benefited others. It is of social value.

#### VIEW OF A HALL IN THE EMERSON SCHOOL. FIG. 4

This picture was taken and is here reproduced to show how the Emerson School history tables are used as bulletin boards. The table in the foreground contains editorials and newspaper clippings upon subjects of interest at the time in some classes. One of the typewritten pages posted on this table contains short quotations from a recent number of the "Independent." A map of Alaska was brought in by a student and was placed where others might be benefited.

The second table is the "Seventh Grade Newspaper." It contains classified clippings from the Chicago and Gary daily papers. The first column is devoted to foreign news; the second to American news; the third, local news, and the fourth, "cartoons and pictures." One of the instructors not connected with the history work recently remarked, "I usually take a few minutes now and then to read the clippings upon that table." He is not the only one who takes advantage of it. Students of the evening school, as well as day school students, find this a convenient way to keep abreast of contemporary events. Another bulletin board hangs just outside the history room. This is convenient for announcements, as well as other illustrative material.

The cabinet shown here is now housing a collection of Indian relics which are the property of our Y. M. C. A. physical director, Mr. Pinneo. They are absolutely safe in this cabinet. We have several other private collections of interesting relics to replace this collection after a few months. One day, Mr. Pinneo dressed up in his complete Indian regalia and gave an interesting talk upon Indian lore in the auditorium. Another day he gave a demonstration of the primitive methods of kindling a fire. The janitors are constantly reminded of the necessity of removing finger and nose marks from the glass of this cabinet.

The large printed and lithographed maps are hung in the walls when there is space, and when not used elsewhere. They are constantly consulted by students of all ages of both the day and evening school.

#### ONE CORNER OF THE HISTORY ROOM (SUMMER OF 1913), EMERSON SCHOOL. FIG. 5

All inanimate objects shown here, with the exception of the chairs, were constructed in the Emerson School. The tables were constructed in the Emerson cabinet shop, under the supervision of Mr. S. S. Cowan. The mounted Perry pictures in the rear of the room were selected and mounted by several girls who presented special reports upon Renaissance art. Nearly all of these pictures have a typewritten explanation pasted on the back of the card.

At this time the Balkan War had reached its second stage, and the map of the Balkan Peninsula was relegated to the rear wall. Beneath this is a chart which illustrates some of the leading campaigns of the Civil War with considerable detail. This latter was constructed by eighth year pupils. The chart, "The Way a Bill Becomes a Law," was voluntarily constructed by a boy in the same class.

This picture is inserted to show that the history room presents different kinds of illustrative material. The picture was taken during the summer session, and this explains the unconventional appearance of the instructor.

#### THE MAGAZINE AND THE WAR

To the Editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

In an open letter to you, published in the March number of the MAGAZINE, Dr. Friedrich and Dr. Rühlmann have taken serious exception to statements made in the "Select Bibliography for the History of Europe in the Past Twenty-five Years," which I prepared for the November issue of the MAGAZINE. They declare themselves "astonished at the anti-German view and the sensible partiality of the author" who finds fault only with books "which sympathize with Germany," and praises only those with "an anti-German bias." I feel constrained to make some answer to this, and hope you will find space to print it.

It is true I have criticised several books and articles because it seemed to me that the writers were so filled with patriotic enthusiasm that they slighted pertinent facts, and even twisted some of them a little in their country's interest. This seemed to me to be especially true of Professor Munsterberg's "The War and America" and J. Ellis Barker's "The Ultimate Ruin of Germany." The one is pro-German, the other is bitterly anti-German. In many other instances I have noted bias on the British side as well as the German, and commended a number of pro-German articles.

After asserting that my comments were not impartial, Dr. Friedrich and Dr. Rühlmann proceed to rectify certain notions as to Pan-Germanism and Treitschke, German militarism, and the German cult of force. They assure us that Pan-Germanism is a purely cultural tendency, and not at all responsible for the present war. But assuredly a host of German professors, state officials, and journalists have taught the German people to believe that German civilization is superior to all others on the globe and destined to supplant them all, and that the German army and navy must be prepared to spread it by force. Of these ideas Treitschke and his followers have been ardent preachers. Perhaps this should not be called Pan-Germanism, but it is hard to doubt that the growing national aggressiveness thus fostered is one of the important causes underlying the war. Personally the writer finds it easy to sympathize with the German desire for expansion but

difficult to endorse a great war for the purpose. Anglo-Saxon countries also have had their preachers of militarism, among them Lord Roberts, Captain Mahan and Homer Lea, whose book, "The Day of the Saxon," unfortunately and quite accidentally escaped the writer's attention when compiling the bibliography. Mr. Lea urges the adoption of universal compulsory military service by the Anglo-Saxon nations, the centralization of government in the British Empire, and the necessity of awakening the militancy of the Anglo-Saxon peoples to protect the domains they now hold from being forcibly seized by rivals, chief of whom he regards Germany, Russia and Japan. But the Anglo-Saxon militarists have not converted the Anglo-Saxon peoples, while the German militarists have long held sway in their own country. The demands of the German General Staff have seldom been refused.

The learned editors imply that in the comments on books and articles under the heading "Militarism" German militarism is stated to have been the fundamental cause of the war. Careful reading will disprove this implication. The last item under the heading "Militarism" suggests "that militarism was the fundamental cause of the war," but not necessarily German militarism. In the writer's opinion, British, French and Russian militarism, as well as German militarism, are responsible for the war. But one may well ask: Did not Prussia originate the system of universal compulsory military service? Did not Prussia as leader of Germany annex Alsace-Lorraine, and so arouse a bitter and lasting revenge sentiment in France which caused that nation to adopt universal service? Has not the recent rapid building of a great German fighting navy convinced an unwilling Liberal English Cabinet that Britain, too, must build as rapidly for

self-preservation? Was not Germany the first power to make an enormous increase in her standing army right after the recent Balkan wars?

The learned editors assert that a cult of force does not exist in Germany, and that "justice is the idol of the German nation." The answer is to point to desolated Belgium. Villard, in his "Germany Embattled," page 32 ff.) declares that "there are two Germanys to whose blending are due her Kultur and the animating spirit of the nation; first, the reactionaries who believe in "divine right of rulers, in the mailed fist, in government by aristocracy, in might against right, and have taught the doctrine that peace can only be assured if all the nations be armed to the teeth;" and, second, "the Germany of great souls, with its thinkers, its teachers, its scientists, its civic administrators, its poets, its glorious musicians, its philosophers, and its idealists." All thinking men must respect and admire the second, but the reactionaries seem to be in control. It is the reactionaries who are strongly imbued with the cult of force and have for a time succeeded in carrying the obedient mass of the German people with them. But however strongly it is asserted that Germany is fighting a defensive war "against a world of hateful enemies conspiring to thwart her natural prosperity," it is difficult to convince the American people. The events of the war show that the German armies could easily have formed entrenched lines along their frontiers, and blocked any attempted invasion of Germany without any act of aggression. Would the great war have taken place had this been done? The German invasion of Belgium and the smashing blow delivered before France was ready do not look like a purely defensive war.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

## Historical Text-Books Published before 1861

LIST PREPARED BY PROFESSOR W. T. RUSSELL, GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, NASHVILLE, TENN.

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|--|---|
| 1704 Hearne, Thos. Universal History. Oxford.  | Bingham, Caleb. A Historical Grammar. Boston. 2d ed.  |
| 1738 Anon. History of Our Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ, explained in a Catechetical Way. Boston.   | 1809 Morse and Parish. A Compendious History of New England. Boston. 2d ed. Newburyport, 1820. Same, with abstract. 3d ed. Charlestown, 1820. |
| 1746 Kennett, B. Roman Antiquities. London. Baltimore.   | 1811 Goldsmith. Abridged History of England. Alexandria.  |
| 1755 Evans, Lewis. Geographical Historical Essays. Phila.  | Anon. Sketches of Universal History. Phila.   |
| 1772 Salmon, Thos. New Geographical and Historical Grammar. London. 12th ed.   | 1813 Goldsmith. History of England (Pennock's Edition). London. 15th ed., 1838; 45th ed., 1846.   |
| 1782 Guthrie. New Geographical, Historical and Commercial Reader. London. 7th ed. 15th, 1795.  | Goldsmith. Grecian History. Phila. 6th ed. 8th ed., 1816.   |
| Tytler, A. Outlines of Universal History. Edin.  | Mayo, Robt. View of Ancient Geography and History. Phila.   |
| 1787 Anon. Introduction to the History of America. Phila.  | 1814 Blake, J. E. Text Book in Geography and Chronology. Providence.  |
| 1796 Winchester. A Plain Political Catechism. Greenfield.  | 1816 Valpy, R. A Poetical Chronology of Ancient and English History. London. 6th ed. 1813. Boston.  |
| 1799 Adams, Hannah. An Abridgement of the History of New England. Dedham. 2d ed. Boston. 1807.   | 1817 Butler, Fredk. A Catechetical Compend of General History. Hartford. 2d ed., 1818; 3d ed., Pittsburg, 1818; 4th, 1819.                    |
| 1803 Millot. Elements of History.  | Worcester, J. E. Universal Gazetteer, Ancient and Modern. 2 vols. Andover. Boston. 1823.  |
| 1805 Cooper, Rev. Mr. History of N. Am. Lansingburg, N. Y. 1818. 2d ed.  | Snowdon, R. History of the United States of America. Phila.   |
| 1806 Webster, Noah. Elements of Useful Knowledge. 1. Hartford. 3d. New London, 1807. II. New Haven. 1802-4-6-8. III. New Haven. 1806-1812. | Abernathy, A. Pocket Chronological Directory. Hartford.   |
| Whelpley, Saml. Compend of History. 2 vols. Morris-town. 3d. N. Y., 1814; 5th, 1821; 8th, 1825.  | Goldsmith. Roman History (abridged). 2d ed. Poughkeepsie. 1818. 3d ed., 1820, N. Y.: 25th ed., 1846.  |
| Tucker, Benj. Sacred and Profane History Epitomized.   | 1818 Goldsmith. Abridged History of England. Baltimore. 2d ed.  |
| 1807 Johnson, W. R. History of Greece in Easy Verse. London.   |   |
| 1808 Cooper, Rev. Mr. History of Greece and Rome. Plymouth. 2d. 1818.  |   |



- Butler, Fredk. Sketches of Universal History. Hartford. 2d ed. 1821.
- Trimmer, Mary. Concise History of New England. 2 vols. Boston.
- Tytler, A. F. Elements of General History. N. Y. Concord 37.
- Tytler, A. F. Elements of General History (ed. T. Robbins). Hartford. 2d ed., N. Y., 1819; Hartford, 1823.
- Tytler, A. F. History—Ancient and Modern. (R. Robbins.) Hartford. 2d ed., N. Y., 1819.
- 1819 Augustill (tr.). Summary of Universal History. Phila.
- Davies, Benj. Robinson's Easy Grammar of History. Phila. 4th ed.
- Adams, Alex. Roman Antiquities. N. Y. 2d ed., 1826.
- Morrill, Thos. Studies in History. Phila.
- Morrill, Thos. Studies of Rome. Phila.
- Hunt, G. J. The Historical Reader. N. Y.
- 1820 Goldsmith. Abridged Roman History. Cooperstown. 1843-49-50. Key to same, 1853. Buffalo.
- 1821 Emerson, Jos. Whateley's Compend of History. Boston. 5th. 8th, 1825.
- Bossuet. Universal History. Tr. by Elphinstone. N. Y.
- Whelpley, Saml. Lectures on Ancient History. 8th ed. 1825.
- Citizen of Mass. History of U. S. A. Keene, N. H. 2d ed. 1823.
- 1822 Goodrich, C. A. History of the United States. Hartford. Hartford, 2d ed., 1823; 3d, 1823; 14th, 1826; New York, 2d ed., 1823; Concord, 1828; Keene, 1829; Boston, 6th ed., 1825; 35th ed., 1833; Phila., 1843; Bellows Falls, 10th ed., 1826; Lexington, Ky., 4th ed., 1825; enlarged edition, 1844; revised edition, 1852.
- Grimshaw, Wm. Key to Questions of the History of the United States. Phila.
- 1823 Tytler, A. F. Elements of General History (ed. I. Hill). Concord. 1823-25-28-31.
- 1824 Grimshaw, Wm. History of the United States. Phila. 1824-26-53-60.
- Hallworth, Thos. Efficacious Method in History and Chronology. N. Y.
- Hallworth, Thos. Efficacious Method in General Ancient History. N. Y.
- Hallworth, Thos. Efficacious Method in Sacred History. N. Y.
- Hallworth, Thos. Efficacious Method in History of the U. S. N. Y.
- Hume. History of England (abrg. by Robinson). N. Y.
- Williams, Saml. History of the American Revolution. New Haven.
- Blake, J. L. The Historical Reader. Concord. 2d ed. Stonington, 1826-27.
- 1825 Allen, Jos. Easy Lessons in Geography and History. Boston.
- Blair, David. Outlines of Chronology. Boston. 1826-1828. 4th ed., 1838.
- Blair, David. Elements of Geography and History. Wethersfield.
- Butler, Fredk. Sketches of Geography and History. Wethersfield.
- Potter, John. Grecian Antiquities. N. Y.
- Anon. History of the U. S. to 1815, with Questions. N. Y.
- 1826 Grimshaw, Wm. Goldsmith's Roman History. Phila. 1828. Boston.
- Grimshaw, Wm. Questions to Goldsmith's History of Greece. N. Y., 1856 and 1868. Phila., 1836.
- Grimshaw, Wm. Questions on the Elements of History—Ancient and Modern.
- Worcester, J. E. Gazetteer of the U. S.
- Worcester, J. E. Elements of History—Ancient and Modern. Boston, 1826-26-28-35-43. New edition, 1850-53-54-58. Questions to do. Boston. 1826-28.
- Blair, David. Outlines of History of Ancient Greece. Boston. Hartford.
- Hale, Salma. History of the United States. N. Y., 1826-27-39-49; Keene, 1829-30-31-35; Cooperstown, 1839-43; Buffalo, 1853.
- Eaton, Rebecca. Abridgement of Milner's Church History. Charlestown.
- Stansburg, J. Elementary Catechism on the Constitution of the U. S.
- Anon. Historical Atlas.
- Goldsmith. History of Greece. Another edition. 1857.
- Questions to same. Phila. 4 editions. Key to Questions to same.
- 1827 Anon. Catechism of Universal History. N. Y.
- Blair, David. Outlines of Ancient History. Boston.
- Hall, S. R. Child's Assistant to Geography and History of Vermont. Montpelier. 2d ed. 1831.
- Smith. Modern History. N. Y.
- Smith. Ancient History. N. Y.
- Smith. Chronology. N. Y.
- Worcester, J. E. Epitome of History. Cambridge.
- 1828 Eastman, F. C. A History of Vermont for Schools. Brattleboro.
- Eastman, F. C. A History of the State of New York.
- Blair, David. Outlines of the History of Ancient Rome. Boston.
- Blair, David. Outlines of the History of England. Boston.
- Jones, Isaac. Constitutions of Massachusetts and the United States for Schools. Boston.
- Willard, Emma. History of the United States. N. Y. 2d. 1843. Phila., also 1854.
- Goodrich, C. A. Outline of Bible History. Boston.
- 1829 Emerson, Jos. Questions and Supplement to Goodrich. Boston.
- Grimshaw, Wm. History and Life of Napoleon. Phila. Also 1854.
- Barker, John W. Interesting Events in the History of the United States. New Haven.
- 1830 Grimshaw, Wm. Questions on the History of the United States. Phila.
- Hildreth, Hosea. A View of the United States. Boston. 2d ed. 1831.
- Thayer, Mrs. C. M. First Lessons in the History of the United States. N. Y. 4th ed.
- Moritz, C. P. Myths of Greece and Rome. N. Y.
- Goodrich, C. A. Outlines of Ecclesiastical History. Hartford.
- 1831 Frost, John. Outlines of Universal History. Boston and Phila.
- Parley, Peter. First Book on History. Revised 39-44. 4th ed. 1849.
- Willard, Emma. School History of the United States. N. Y., 1831-47-50; Phila., 44.
- Davenport, Bishop. History of the United States. Phila., 1844 and 1848.
- 1832 Peter, Parley. Tales About Ancient Rome. Boston.
- Peter, Parley. Second Book of History. N. Y. 55th ed. 1844.
- Peabody. First Steps to the Study of History. Boston.
- Robbins, Royal. Outlines of Ancient and Modern History. Hartford. 1833-51.
- Webster, Noah. History of the United States. New Haven. 33-35.
- 1833 Parley, Peter. Third Book of History. At least 16 editions.
- Parley, Peter. Tales About Ancient and Modern Greece. Boston.
- Putnam, Geo. P. Chronology. N. Y.
- Sullivan, Wm. History Class Book. Pt. I. Boston.
- 1834 Peabody, Eliz. Key to History. Pt. III. Boston.
- Robbins, Eliza. English History for Schools. Boston.
- Robbins, Royal. The World Displayed in its History and Geography. N. Y.
- Sigourney, L. H. Evening Readings in History. Springfield.
- Story, Joseph. Constitutional Class Book. Boston.
- Whitson, J. M. History of New Hampshire.
- Goodrich, C. A. Child's History of the United States.
- 1835 Worcester, Jos. Elements of History—Ancient and Modern. Boston. 1847.

- Anon. Historical Catechism on U. S. History. Utica. 18th ed.
- 1836 Frost, John. History of the United States for Schools and Academies. Boston.
- Hall and Baker. School History of the United States. Boston, 36-43; Andover, 39.
- Olney, Jesse. History of the United States. New Haven. 4th ed. 14th ed., 1853.
- Anon. Outlines of Sacred History. Phila.
- Mouls, J. and P. Histoire de Charles XII. N. Y.
- Wilson, S. F. History of the American Revolution. Baltimore.
- 1837 Frost, John. History of the United States for Common Schools. Phila.
- Parley, Peter. Book of the United States. Boston.
- Parley, Peter. Common School History. Boston.
- Parley, Peter. Universal History on the Basis of Geography. N. Y.
- Russell, John. History of the United States. Phila., 37-44-54.
- 1838 Marshall, John. Life of Washington for Schools. Phila.
- Smith, J. T. Compendious View of Ancient History. Boston.
- Goldsmith. Pinnock's Edition. History of England. Phila. 1850.
- Goodrich, C. A. Questions on the Enlarged Edition of the History of the United States. Boston.
- 1839 Parley, Peter. Revised First Book of History. Boston.
- 1840 Simms, W. G. History of South Carolina. New Haven.
- Simms, W. G. Questions to same.
- 1841 Bancroft, Geo. History of the Colonization of the United States. Boston. 1845. New York. 1847.
- 1842 Parley, Peter. Young American (Book of Government and Law). N. Y.
- Hazlitt (tr.). Guizot's History of Civilization. N. Y.
- Holgate, J. B. Atlas of American History.
- 1843 Hart, J. S. White's Elements of Universal History. Phila. 2d. 47.
- Marsh, John. Epitome of General History. 7th ed. N. Y.
- Michelet. Elements of Modern History. N. Y.
- Sherman, Henry. Governmental History of the United States. N. Y.
- Willard, Emma. Abridged History of America. 2d. 1845.
- Goodrich, C. A. Child's History of the United States. Phila.
- 1844 Barker, J. W. Elements of General History. New Haven. 2d. 4th ed., 1849.
- Wedgewood, Wm. B. Revised Statutes of New York for Schools. 12th ed. N. Y.
- Wedgewood, Wm. B. Revised Statutes of N. Hampshire for Schools. Concord.
- Wedgewood, Wm. B. Revised Statutes of Vermont for Schools. Brattleboro.
- Wedgewood, Wm. B. Revised Statutes of Massachusetts for Schools. Boston.
- C. A. Goodrich. Questions to Enlarged History of the United States. 1846.
- Russell. History of the United States. Phila.
- 1845 Arnold, Thos. Manual of Greek and Roman Antiquities. N. Y.
- Hart, J. S. Exposition of the Constitution of the United States. 2d. 50.
- Haskell, D. Chronological View of the World. N. Y.
- Lyman, A. S. Questions on the Chart of Universal History. Phila.
- Taylor, W. C. Students' Manual of Ancient History. N. Y.
- Taylor, W. C. Students' Manual of Modern History. N. Y.
- Willson, M. Accompaniment to Complete Chart of American History. N. Y.
- Tyson, J. W. Atlas of Ancient and Modern History. Phila. 1847.
- Anon. Outlines of History of England. Phila.
- Goodrich, S. G. Pictorial History of the United States. Ed. by W. Alcott. Phila.
- 1846 Parley, Peter. History of Africa.
- Parley, Peter. Ancient History.
- Parley, Peter. Pictorial History of England.
- Parley, Peter. Pictorial History of France. Revised 1859.
- Parley, Peter. Pictorial History of Greece. Revised 1859.
- Parley, Peter. History of South America. N. Y.
- Goldsmith. Grecian History. Pinnock's Edition abridged. 25th ed. Phila.
- 1847 Parley. Modern History. N. Y.
- Hogarth. Outlines of Roman History. Phila.
- Hogarth. Outlines of History of England. Phila.
- McCartney. Origin and Progress of the United States. Phila.
- Michelet. History of the Roman Republic. N. Y.
- White. Elements of Universal History. Phila.
- Willson, M. History of the United States. 47-53-58.
- Goldsmith. Key to Questions on History of Greece. (Anon.) Phila.
- Anon. Outlines of American History. Phila.
- Bonchier. Outlines of Grecian History. Phila.
- Taylor. Revision of Pinnock's Edition of Goldsmith's Grecian Hist. Phila.
- Strickland. Tales and Stories from History. Phila.
- 1848 Fiske, N. W. Classical Antiquities. Phila.
- Parley. History of Europe. N. Y.
- Parley. History of Asia. N. Y.
- Parley. Pictorial History of Rome. Revised. 1858. Phila.
- Guernsey. History of the United States. 5th ed. N. Y.
- Strauss. Stream of Time. N. Y.
- Markham, Mrs. School History of England. N. Y. 2d ed. 1855.
- Mangnall. Historical and Miscellaneous Questions. N. Y.
- Boysen. Manual of Greek and Roman Antiquities. Edited by Thos. Arnold. N. Y.
- 1849 Parley. Comprehensive Geography and History.
- Mackay, J. Roman Antiquities. New Haven.
- Putz, W. Manual of Ancient Geography and History.
- Sewell, E. Child's First History of Rome.
- 1850 Parley. History of North America. N. Y.
- Greene, J. W. Manual of Geography and History of the Middle Ages. N. Y.
- Grimshaw, Wm. History of South America. Phila.
- Putz. Handbook of Medieval Geography and History.
- Putz. Manual of Modern Geography and History.
- Rivers, W. Catechism of the History of South Carolina.
- Taylor. Manual of Ancient and Modern History. N. Y.
- Ungewitter. Europe, Past and Present. N. Y.
- Wirt, Wm. Life of Patrick Henry. Arranged for Schools. N. Y.
- Greene. Historical Studies. N. Y.
- Parley. Pictorial History of America. Hartford.
- Taylor. Pinnock's History of France. Boston. 2d ed. 1856.
- Parley. Primer of History. N. Y.
- 1851 Anthon. Manual of Roman Antiquities. N. Y.
- 1852 Guernsey, E. History of New York. N. Y.
- Anderson, J. J. Davenport's History of the United States. Phila.
- Bonchier. Outlines of Grecian History. 13th ed. Phila.
- Brewer, Dr. Guide to English History. N. Y. 1858.
- Salkeld, Jos. Classical Antiquities. 2d ed. 1859.
- Scott, D. B. Manual of the History of the United States. N. Y.
- Willson, Marcius. American History (school ed.). N. Y. 2d. 1856.
- Willson, Marcius. Comprehensive Chart of American History. N. Y.
- Willson, Marcius. Outlines of General History. N. Y. 2d. 1859, 1860.
- Anon. First, Second, Third Book of History Combined with Geog. Boston.

- Townsend, H. *History of England in Verse*. 2d ed. Phila.
- Worcester. *Historical Atlas*. Cambridge.
- Peter, Chas. *Historical and Chronological Tables*. N. Y.
- 1853 Fisher, R. S. *Gazetteer of the United States*. N. Y.
- Gleig, G. R. *School History of England*. London.
- Hart, J. S. *Epitome of Greek and Roman Mythology*. Phila.
- Moffatt, J. C. *Clark's History of England*. N. Y.
- Sewell, E. M. *Child's First History of Greece*. N. Y.
- Smith, Wm. *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*. Weber, Geo. *Outlines of Universal History*. Boston. 14th ed. 1860.
- Grimshaw, A. H. *Revision of Grimshaw's History of the United States*. Phila. 1860.
- Key to Questions in Same. Phila.
- 1854 Coleman, Lyman. *Historical Text-book and Atlas of Biblical Geography*. Phila. 2d ed. 1860.
- Anthon, Chas. *Manual of Greek Antiquities*. N. Y.
- Brown, R. W. *History of Greek Classical Literature*. Phila.
- Brown, R. W. *History of Roman Classical Literature*. Phila.
- Lord, John. *History of the United States*. Phila.
- Putnam, G. *Cyclopedia of History and Chronology*. N. Y.
- Russell, John. *History of England*. Phila.
- Russell, John. *History of France*. Phila.
- Russell, John. *History of Greece and Rome*. Phila.
- Shea, I. G. *First Book of History*.
- Turner, Dawson. *Analysis of English and French History*. London. 3d ed.
- Willard, Emma. *Last Leaves of American History*. N. Y.
- Willard, Emma. *Temple of Time*. N. Y.
- Willard, Emma. *Historical Guide and Map of Time*. N. Y.
- Kveppon, A. L. *Historico-Geographical Atlas of Middle Ages*. N. Y.
- Parley, Peter. *Introduction to Parley's Pictorial History of the World*. Phila.
- Grimshaw, Wm. *Key to Questions on History of England*. Phila.
- Willard, Emma. *The American Chronographers*. N. Y.
- Willard, Emma. *The Ancient Chronographers*. N. Y.
- Willard, Emma. *The English Chronographers*. N. Y.
- 1855 Edgar, J. G. *History for Boys*. N. Y.
- Berard, A. B. *School History of the United States*. Phila.
- Robinson, John. *History of England, abgd. from Hume*. N. Y.
- Shea, I. G. *Elementary History of the United States*.
- Smith, Wm. *History of Greece*. Boston.
- Willard, Emma. *Universal History in Perspective*. N. Y.
- DePaisson. *Translation of Histoire des Etats-Unis*. Phila.
- 1856 Bonner, John. *Child's History of Rome*. N. Y.
- McKinney, M. *Our Government*. Phila.
- Peabody, Eliz. *Chronological History of the United States*. N. Y.
- Forbes, E. A. *Easy Lessons on Scripture History*. N. Y.
- Anon. *First Lessons in History of the United States*. Boston.
- Eliot, Saml. *Manual of U. S. History*. Boston.
- Grimshaw, W. *Questions on the History of France*. Phila.
- Parley, Peter. *Pictorial History of the World*.
- Dale-Henry. *Translation of Thucydides-Peloponnesian War*. N. Y.
- 1857 Edwards, Amelia B. *Outlines of English History*. Boston.
- Grimshaw, Wm. *History of England*. Phila.
- Grimshaw, Wm. *History of France*. Phila.
- Cecil, G. E. *Dates, Battles, and Events in Modern History*.
- Bonner, John. *Child's History of Greece*. 2 vols. N. Y.
- Bonner, John. *Child's History of the United States*. 2 v. N. Y.
- Quackenboss, G. P. *Illustrated History of the United States*. N. Y.
- Giessler. *Text Book of Church History*. New York.
- Tracy, J. L. *American History Reader*. Phila.
- Sewell, E. M. *Child's First History of Rome*. N. Y.
- Lossing, B. J. *Primary History of the United States*. N. Y.
- Smith, Wm. *The Student's Gibbon*. 1859.
- 1858 Knightly, Thos. *Universal History*. Phila.
- 1859 Fisher, R. S. *General Geography and History of the World*. N. Y.
- Kohlrausch. *History of Germany*. N. Y.
- Lardner, Dionysus. *A History of the World*. Phila.
- Markham, Mrs. *History of France*.
- Parker, R. G. *Outlines of General History*.
- Peabody, Eliz. *Universal History*. New York.
- Smith, L. L. *Questions to Taylor's Ancient and Modern History*.
- Smith, Wm. *The Student's Hume*. N. Y.
- 1860 Parley, Peter. *Child's Pictorial History of the United States*. Phila.
- Green, G. W. *Smith's History of Greece*.
- Cotton, J. H. *Historical Atlas (by F. W. Hunt)*. N. Y.
- Palmer, Geo. *History of England*. Hartford.
- Schmitz, Leonard. *Manual of Ancient History*. N. Y.
- Smith, H. B. *History of the Church*. N. Y.
- Story, Joseph. *Familiar Exposition of the Constitution of the United States*. N. Y.
- Abbot, Jacob. *Narrative of General Course of History*. N. Y.
- Debusson (tr.). *Petite Histoire Universelle*. Phila.
- No Date. Arnold, Thos. *History of Rome*.
- Baker, Geo. *Livy's History of Rome*.
- Berard, A. B. *School History of England*. N. Y.
- Blake, J. L. *History of the American Revolution*.
- Bloss. *Ancient History*. Rochester.
- Bonner, John. *Child's History of France*.
- Booth. *Pictorial History of the United States*.
- Brownell, H. H. *People's Book of Ancient and Modern History*.
- Hannah, S. H. *Bible History*.
- Herbert, H. W. *Goldsmith's History of Rome*.
- Alison. *History of Europe*.
- Chapin. *Complete Reference Gazetteer of the United States*. N. Y.
- Fellows. *Youth's Manual of the Constitution of the United States*. Hartford.
- Ferguson. *Abridged History of the Roman Republic*.
- Frost, John. *Goldsmith's Pictorial History of England*.
- Frost, John. *History of Ancient and Modern Rome*.
- Frost, John. *History of Ancient and Modern Greece*.
- Frost, John. *Robertson's Discovery of America*.
- Frost, John. *Robertson's Charles IV. with Questions*.
- Gillies, John. *History of Greece*.
- Hunt, G. S. *Practical Class Book of the History of the World*.
- Hunter, J. H. *Analytical History for Schools*.
- Hyde, A. *English History Simplified*.
- Kneightley, Thos. *Outlines of History*. N. Y.
- Kneightley, Thos. *Outlines of Greece*. N. Y.
- Kneightley, Thos. *Outlines of Rome*. N. Y.
- Kneightley, Thos. *Outlines of Roman Empire*. N. Y.
- Kerney. *Compendium of History*.

"The War Against War," by Winthrop D. Sheldon, in the "Forum" for March, is an answer to the sneers at the work of the pacifists, and to the propaganda of the militarists. He says: "When—as sooner or later it will—war meets the fate of slavery (a fellow relic of barbarism) those who now defend it and clamor for armaments and scoff at and denounce pacifism and the pacifists, will be assigned their proper place, by the side of the champions of slavery, as the discredited partisans of a system condemned by the conscience of the world."



## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

SCOTT, JONATHAN FRENCH. *Historical Essays on Apprenticeship and Vocational Education*. Ann Arbor: Ann Arbor Press, 1914. Pp. 96.

In this thesis the author has entered somewhat boldly a well-surveyed field. One must possess considerable intellectual courage to go over the work of Ashley, Brentano, Cunningham, Dunlop, Gross, Herbert, Lambert, Toulmin Smith, Unwin and Webb, and also the sources used by these authors, and draw new conclusions, or even to summarize what they have written. It is no small task to condense into seventy-five pages the essential characteristics of the apprenticeship system in England. But the author has ably acquitted himself, and those of us who have examined his sources will appreciate the service he has rendered students of English economic history.

Surveys of this kind are likely to be characterized by lack of continuity and proportion, and, unfortunately, Doctor Scott's is not an exception. In several instances the author might have made more positive in character statements of which the following is a type: "It is not probable, however, that most of the English gilds during the fourteenth century and at least part of the fifteenth took very active measures to restrain the apprentice from setting up in trade on completing his years of service." (Page 19.) Indeed, records may be quoted to show that the apprentice was encouraged, and, in many cases, required to "set up" within a year or two after the completion of the period of apprenticeship. The treatment must not be judged too critically, however; the inaccessibility of the best records, and the nature of the material used, make it exceedingly difficult to treat the subject satisfactorily in a short thesis.

The value of Doctor Scott's thesis lies chiefly in the fact that he has presented in handy form a digest of a large amount of source material; he has made available for ready reference some valuable "documentary evidence." In this sense it is a contribution.

ROBERT F. SEYBOLT.

The University of Wisconsin.

BRYAN, WILHELMUS BOGART. *A History of the National Capital*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1914. Pp. 669, xxi. \$5.00.

While this book is not a work of popular interest to the general reader, owing to its minutely detailed information, still much of it is written in an interesting narrative style, an illustration being Chapter VI, showing President Washington's personal interest and influence in the development of the newly chosen location for the capital. But the chief service of the work lies in the extensive and careful research, attested by numerous footnote citations of authorities, which has enabled the author to bring together so many facts regarding the selection and development of the site of our national capital. Less, however, is said of the "capital bargain" and the burning of the city by the British than would ordinarily be expected.

To mention a few defects: On page 117 "Sufa" evidently is intended for "Susa;" the usual preface is omitted; the table of contents affording good analyses of the chapters does not give the title of each; the division into chapters is arbitrary, the titles giving but little clue as to the contents. To cite but one illustration of this: Chapter X, with the heading "Washington's Plan to Found a National University," has only three pages out of a

total of twenty-five that relate to such a project. The chronological arrangement of the materials, not well digested, is responsible doubtless for this unsatisfactory division. Other arrangement of the subject matter according to topics and a liberal condensation of all the main facts into the body of the book with much of the detail transferred to footnotes would have made it more attractive, and caused no substantial loss in the real serviceableness of the work.

But these defects are amply offset by the real worth of such an extensive collection of historical data relating to our national capital.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

ROBIESON, W. D. *The Growth of Parliament and the War with Scotland, 1216-1307*. London: G. Bell & Sons, 1914. Pp. viii, 120. 35 cents.

This volume is one of a series of source books, published by the same firm, and intended, when completed, to cover the whole field of English history. The series has almost been completed, eighteen of the volumes having been published up to the present time. Covering approximately the period of the thirteenth century, the present volume contains a selection of contemporary documents translated into English, for the use, as the editor suggests, of students in secondary schools. The work of editing the volume, so far as it goes, has been well done. No space has been devoted to any introductory explanation of the various sources, although a few footnotes are given where they are needed in the interpretation of some of the more obscure passages. The contents include certain stock documents which would be found in any collection of sources dealing with the reigns of Henry III and Edward I, with some additional material of a more personal, descriptive or lively character. As to the scheme of arrangement of the selections, the old chronological, instead of the topical, has been used, probably on account of the comparatively short space of time covered by the volume. The documents used serve to illustrate in a satisfactory way the two subjects included in the title of the collection, and in addition show very clearly the decline of papal influence in England. The first selection shows the papal legate taking the principal part in the coronation of the king, while one of the last sets forth the royal defiance of papal pretensions in the matter of taxing the clergy. Attractive in form and almost entirely free from typographical errors, as well as excellent in contents, the volume still leaves much to be desired. Its perusal does not offer the reader a satisfactory survey of the various activities in England during the thirteenth century. Although the title of the volume would justify it, too much space is given to sources of a military or constitutional character, notwithstanding the claim of the editors of the series that a greater variety is sought. Campaigns, battles, the actions of the king and nobles are traced in detail, while the acts of parliament and other public documents are adequately represented. What the reader misses is the material dealing with the life of the common people of England during the period, the peasants on the manors and the workers and traders of the towns. The latter are mentioned incidentally in one or two accounts, as are also the students and monks of the thirteenth century, but all are neglected, in comparison with the attention bestowed upon other subjects. For these reasons the volume would be useful only for the study of special phases of a limited period. The price of the single volume is small, so that notwithstanding the number of volumes in the whole series, the latter would be within reach of almost any school library.

University of Wisconsin.

DAVID L. PATTERSON.

HILL, MABEL. *The Teaching of Civics*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1914. Pp. x, 146. 35 cents.

This little book is one of the Riverside Educational Monographs, edited by Henry Suzzallo. In a brief introduction the editor points out differences between the old and the new method of teaching civics. The old was formal, remote, and dealt with the machinery of government. The new approaches the subject from the standpoint of the child's natural interests, and it has constantly the aim of stimulating action. These and other principles are worked out and illustrated in detail by Miss Hill in Part I, which occupies thirty pages.

The larger part of the book presents a series of twenty-four suggestive lessons. Of these, nine are primarily related to local affairs, such as health, recreation, education, and care of dependents. The rest, excepting two (industries and regulation of labor), are national government topics; but local and national affairs are correlated wherever possible.

Under each topic there is a brief introductory discussion; then an outline of "topics for the blackboard;" then "further discussion," in which are found many helpful questions. These are followed by "special topics" relating to the main subject under discussion, and "helpful readings" (references). Throughout there is a distinct effort to emphasize the ethical aspects of civics, to stimulate investigation on the part of pupils, to impress their civic obligations, and to arouse the spirit of co-operation and service. Could this method be pursued in all civics classes, the next generation of adults would surely be better citizens than the present one.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

DANA, EMMA L. *Makers of America*. New York: Immigrant Publication Society, 1915. Pp. 205. 50 cents, paper; 75 cents, cloth.

The endeavor of this society is to produce and promote the circulation of books especially suited to the need and comprehension of the foreign-born non-voting element of our population. Through this group of biographies of our four greatest statesmen, Franklin, Washington, Jefferson and Lincoln, it seeks to interpret to these millions, so significant of good or harm to our institutions, America's message of liberty, equality, brotherhood and peace, and to kindle ideals of responsibility and service. These life-sketches are told simply, stirringly, and with fidelity to fact; they can be easily understood and will be enjoyed. Three maps, six good portraits and a page of bibliography are provided. The book is well adapted to its purpose, and its use may well be promoted by all teachers whose work is among the foreign-born portion of our people.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

The Yale University Press announces for publication this spring "Readings on American History, 1913," by Miss Grace Gardner Griffin.

The Manchester, New Hampshire, Teachers' Guild presented a successful historical pageant February 15. This pageant was arranged by Miss Elsie D. Fairbanks, head of the History Department in the Manchester High School. It traced the history of Manchester from the early days of the Indian and pioneer down to the present day, and furnished both pleasure and education to the fourteen hundred able to attend.

## Reports from the Historical Field

BY WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR

### NOTES

Miami University has recently come into control of the Samuel S. Covington Library of Ohio Valley History. A description of the library and a sketch of the life of S. S. Covington is given in the Miami University Bulletin for October, 1914. The collection is particularly rich in old almanacs, local newspapers, scrap-books on local matters and works on economical history.

The New England Association will meet in Worcester on Friday and Saturday, April 30, May 1. No change has been made in the program as announced in the March number of the magazine.

Through an oversight, a confusing notice appeared in this column in the March issue regarding the new "Committee on History in Schools," appointed by the American Historical Association. The chairman of this important committee is professor W. S. Ferguson, of Harvard University.

The District Conference on History Teaching in Secondary Schools was held at Gary, Ind., February 26 and 27, under the auspices of the Extension Division of the Indiana University. The conference was organized as a result of the consultation work of Prof. O. H. Williams, already commented upon in these pages. The conference aimed to consider some of the more vital and concrete problems in every-day teaching of history, and to define standards for measuring the worth of courses of study and methods of teaching the subject.

The program included "The 'Gary Idea' Applied in History Instruction," by Supt. Wm. Wirt, of the Gary Schools; "Well-Directed Reading in History," by Miss Lena M. Johnson, Plymouth High School; "Constructive Notebook Work," by Shepherd Leffler, South Bend High School; "Dramatizing History Materials," by Miss Charity Dye, of the Indiana Federation of Clubs; "Vitalizing History Work," by R. D. Chadwick, Emerson School, Gary; general discussion, led by Professors S. B. Harding, C. O. Davis, H. G. Childs and J. W. Rittinger; "The Medieval Castle" (illustrated lecture), by Samuel B. Harding, Professor of European History, Indiana University; "Possibilities of Moving Pictures in History Work," demonstration lecture by a representative of the Nicholas Power Company, New York; "The Nature and Method of History," by Samuel B. Harding, Professor of European History, Indiana University; "Social Emphasis in History Instruction," by H. G. Childs, Associate Professor of Education, University of Michigan; "Standards of Value for Community Civics," by D. W. Horton, Principal of High School, Mishawaka; "Standards of Judging Instruction in History," by Oscar H. Williams, Assistant Professor and Critic Teacher in History, Indiana University.

An examination for high school position in history will be given on Saturday, April 10, 1915, in Newark, N. J., at the Central High School. The requirements for admission to the examination are graduation from an approved college or university with not less than two years of successful experience in teaching the subject, or a first assistant's certificate for the city of Newark, and not less than two years of successful experience in teaching the seventh or eighth grades. Application must be made not later than April 3d to the City Superintendent of Schools, City Hall, Newark, N. J.

### PROGRAM OF ANNUAL MEETING MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION

Friday afternoon, April 16, at 3 o'clock. The Donovan Room, Johns Hopkins University.

Address of welcome, President Frank J. Goodnow, Johns Hopkins University.

Response, Professor Henry Johnson, Teachers' College, President of the Association.

Reports from the Field.

Impressions of the general observer of work in American high schools, Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, Teachers' College, Columbia University.

Recent changes in the teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland.

1. Professor R. W. Kelsey, Haverford College.

2. Dr. D. C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark.

3. Mr. E. E. Giltner, New York Training School for Teachers.

General discussion with volunteer reports on existing conditions.

Friday evening, April 16, 7 o'clock. The Donovan Room, Johns Hopkins University.

Subscription Dinner, followed by an address, "The Literary Recreation of the History Teacher," by Professor John M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University.

Saturday morning, April 17, 9.30 o'clock. The Donovan Room, Johns Hopkins University.

General topic: The differentiation of history in the high school from history in the elementary school; and of history in the college from history in the high school, illustrated by reference to the causes of the American Revolution.

1. "Material and Treatment for a Seventh Grade," Miss Louise J. Hedge, Brooklyn Training School for Teachers.

2. "Material and Treatment for a Senior Class in the High School," Professor Philip Dougherty, Polytechnic Institute, Baltimore.

3. "Material and Treatment for a College Class," Professor Charles W. Spencer, Princeton University.

Discussion: Miss Lida Lee Tall, Supervisor of Grammar Grade, Baltimore.

Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia.

Dr. James Sullivan, Brooklyn Boys' High School.

Dr. Annie Abel, Goucher College, Baltimore.

Saturday morning, 11.30 o'clock. The Donovan Room, Johns Hopkins University.

Annual business meeting of the Association, with reports of the committees.

Saturday noon, 12 o'clock sharp. The Donovan Room, Johns Hopkins University.

Buffet luncheon tendered to the members of the Association by Johns Hopkins University.

Saturday afternoon, 1.30 o'clock.

An excursion to Annapolis.

### HIGH SCHOOL RALLY DAY

The annual high school rally, conducted by the Louisiana State University will be held this year on April 30, May 1. The program for the two days' meeting consists of various contests, both athletic and intellectual, between pupils from the various high schools of Louisiana.

The contest in history will consist of a series of questions on the political, social, economic and biographical factors of American history, so framed as to test the student's accuracy, thoroughness and power of thinking. Each school may send one contestant. Each student will receive a copy of the questions and will have one hour in which to answer them.

The syllabus of the state course of study may be followed as a guide, but mere knowledge of the text-book will not enable the student to answer all the questions. The following works should be in every school library, and will amply suffice for the preparation for this contest, but additional titles will be supplied to any school on request: Ashley, "American State;" Boynton, "School Civics;" Bryce, "American Commonwealth;" Hart, "Epochs of American History;" Hart, "Source Book of American History;" Dewey, "Financial History of the United States;" Shepherd, "Historical Atlas;" Chandler and Chitwood, "Makers of American History;" MacDonald, "Documentary Source Book of American History;" "The Confederate Military History;" "The South in the Building of the Nation;" Eggleston, "History of the Confederate War;" Coman, "Industrial History of the United States." For biography, the American Statesmen Series (Houghton), the American Crisis Series (Jacobs), and the Riverside Series (Houghton) are recommended.

## Periodical Literature

BY MARY W. WILLIAMS, PH.D., EDITOR

"World's Work" for March contains an illuminating and interesting account of "A Day in the Belgian Relief Stations," by Arno Dosch.

Under the title, "The Jews as Viewed through Roman Spectacles" ("Hibbert Journal," January), Professor Herbert Strong shows how completely the Jews were misunderstood and misjudged by their western conquerors.

"Westermann's Monatshefte" for January presents an illustrated article by Erich Köhler, entitled, "Between the Armies." It is written from the German point of view, and describes life in the German army on the battle line in western Europe.

In the "Hibbert Journal" for January are two contributions by Belgians: "The Soul of the Belgians," a discussion of the position of Belgium, by the Abbé Noël, and a "Narrative of a Professor of Louvain," which describes the German capture of Louvain.

An illustrated biographical sketch of "King Albert of the Belgians," by Demetrius C. Boulger, is published in "Scribner's Magazine" for March.

The history of "The Building of the Panama Canal," by George W. Goethals, begins in the same issue of "Scribner's." The narrative is beautifully illustrated in colors, and in black and white, from photographs.

The February "Bulletin of the American Geographical Society" includes an account of "Lamasery Life," by the late Francis H. Nichols, author of "Through Hidden Shensi," who spent some time in a lamasery studying lamaism, which he described as "Buddhism in its most debased, intense and fanatical form"—with other non-Buddhist elements added.

"The Last Wild Tribe of California" ("Popular Science Monthly," March), by Professor T. T. Waterman, of the University of California, is an illustrated account of a remnant of the Yahi tribe of Indians recently found living after the manner of the stone age.

The March number of the "Century" contains the first installment of "Cabbages and Kings: Recollections of Great Rulers and their Courts," by the Infanta Eulalia of Spain. The first chapter, entitled, "The Kaiser and His Court," is cleverly illustrated by Oliver Herford in a manner in harmony with the spirit in which the account is written.



Richard Cabot considers "Italy's Foreign and Colonial Policy" in the "Fortnightly Review" for February, basing his discussion upon the recently published work of Baron di San Severino, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs.

In the same number of the "Review" Robert Dell presents a study of "The Vatican and the War," which shows up the papacy in an unfavorable light. It is the author's opinion that in his relations with the belligerents the pope is working primarily for the restoration of the temporal power of the papacy; and, in furtherance of this aim, it seems likely that an understanding has already been reached between the Vatican and Germany and Austria.

"Russia and Liberalism" is an interesting presentation by Angelo S. Rappoport—also in the February "Review." During her early history, the writer points out, Russia was democratic; Russian autocracy is not a development from within, but is an artificial growth resulting from Mongol, Byzantine, and—lastly—Prussian influence. The present European war will sweep away Russian absolutism, and "from the mist of carnage will arise a regenerated Russia, inspired, animated by the Slavonic spirit of democracy, of tolerance and freedom, a Russia who will be the true friend and ally of Constitutional England and of Republican France."

In an article entitled, "The European War and Geography" ("Educational Review," March), Robert M. Brown, of the Providence, Rhode Island, State Normal School, shows that though the present war is likely to change the map of Europe, there are, nevertheless, many geographical questions which may be studied at the present time with especial interest and profit. Among these are the following: The difference between physical and artificial boundary lines; the problem of distance as a barrier; the part played by man in overcoming natural barriers; international highways; climate; self-sustenance of nations; economic effects of the war upon neutral countries.

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- Andrews, Charles M. Narratives of the insurrections, 1675-1690. N. Y.: Scribner. 414 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Babcock, Kendric C. The Scandinavian element in the United States. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 223 pp. \$1.15, net.
- Ford, Henry J. The Scotch-Irish in America. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 607 pp. (3¼ pp. bibl.). \$2.00, net.
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- Hughes, John T. Doniphan's expedition; account of the conquest of New Mexico [etc.]. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off. 202 pp.
- Hunter, Frederick W. Stiegel glass. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 272 pp. \$10.00, net.
- Mass. Historical Society. The commerce of Rhode Island. Vol. I. Boston: The Society. 525 pp. \$3.00, net.
- Studies in southern history and politics, inscribed to William A. Dunning by his former pupils, the authors. N. Y.: Lemeke and Buechner. 394 pp. \$2.50, net.
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##### Ancient History

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- Cook, Arthur B. Zeus, a study in ancient religion. Vol. I, Zeus, god of the bright-sky. N. Y.: Putnam. 896 pp. \$13.50, net.
- Hogarth, D. G. The ancient east [Western Asia, 1000 B. C. to Christian era]. N. Y.: Holt. 256 pp. 50 cents, net.
- Peters, John P. The religion of the Hebrews. Boston: Ginn & Co. 502 pp. (12 pp. bibl.). \$2.75.
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